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HIGHER ENGLISH

BY

F. J. RAHTZ, M.A., B.Sc. [LOND.]

SENIOR LECTURER IN ENGLISH AT THE MERCHANT VENTURERS'
TECHNICAL COLLEGE, BRISTOL

SEVENTH EDITION

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PREFACE

THE teaching of English has experienced almost a revolution in recent years : new methods are as essential in this subject as in French and German. English Classics are now published at such reasonable prices as to be well within the reach of everyone. There seems, however, a need for some book dealing in a practical way with Modern English, and offering varied exercises, without which the study of English Classics will be of little value to the average pupil. The present volume is designed to meet such requirements. It treats English, not as a foreign tongue, but as a living language ever present with us, reflecting in its idiom our national characteristics and modes of thought.

Many exercises of a novel type have been introduced ; and, where possible, these, as well as the examples in the text, have been drawn from standard literature, in order that the student may, at the outset, be familiar with the very best English. Formal grammar has been reduced to a minimum ; considerable attention has, however, been given to the discussion of difficulties in grammar and construction.

Primarily, this book has been written with a view to preparation for the London Matriculation and similar examinations. It should, in consequence, be a suitable book for the Upper Forms of Secondary Schools ; taken in conjunction with some English Classics, it should form a satisfactory basis for a two-years' course in such a school.

I am indebted to the Senate of the University of London for kind permission to use the questions set in recent years at the

Matriculation Examination; many of these are included as exercises, and are there marked with an (M), whilst the papers of the last two years are printed entire at the end of the book. I also desire to thank H.M. Controller of Stationery for permission to reproduce the correspondence of § 369 and Exercise v. of Chapter xxix.; and the editors of the *Daily Telegraph* and *Daily Mail* for similar permission.

F. J. R.

PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

IN this edition, misprints and other errors have as far as possible been eliminated, and recent Matriculation papers added.

An Appendix on English Literature will be found after Chapter xxxii. This is intended as a guide to candidates for the Scotch Leaving Certificate and English Preliminary Certificate Examinations, and also for London Matriculation under the new regulations.

September 1908

PREFACE TO THE SEVENTH EDITION

THE chief alterations in this edition are the revision of the list of essays on page 262, and the addition of recent Matriculation papers.

September 1912

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HIGHER ENGLISH

CHAPTER I

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1. **L**ANGUAGE is the expression of thought ; hence a study of English will enable us to understand, more fully than would otherwise be possible, the thoughts of the best writers of our language both in the past and in the present. Further, such a study will help us to appreciate the beauty of the expression of those thoughts. When we reflect that

We speak the tongue which Shakspeare spoke,

when we remember that we have a literature which, in extent and continuity as well as in excellence, is second to none, we ought to come to the conclusion that, if only for this reason, the English language is worthy of careful investigation.

Yet this is not the only purpose of a study of this or indeed any language. There is that special kind of training which is acquired by a scientific research into the principles underlying the language ; and there is the invaluable experience to be gained by constant practice in the employment of language in composition and similar exercises.

2. **HISTORY**—One of the most important parts of our work will therefore be an investigation of the vocabulary and construction of our language as it at present exists. In order to be able to comprehend this part of our subject at all adequately, it will be necessary to inquire briefly into the history of our language—its origin and subsequent modifications, and the relationship it bears to other languages.

A merely cursory study of our words shows us that most of

them resemble words in other languages; we recognise, for instance, that many of them are either exactly the same as, or very similar to, words in French, German, and other European languages; and were we to pursue the question further, we should find resemblances even to a few Asiatic languages.

Now there may have been two processes which, in the past, tended to produce such a result. Either English may have borrowed these words from the other languages; or, all those languages as well as English may have derived their fundamental words from a common original.

We find that *both* these processes have operated with regard to English.

3. ARYAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES—Was there then, in fact, a parent of all these languages? Philologists teach us that there undoubtedly was such a parent language although it is not now in existence; it is designated **Indo-European** or **Aryan**. From it various groups of languages have sprung, the chief of which are: **Hindu** and **Persian** (forming the East Aryan subdivision); and **Keltic**, **Romanic**, **Hellenic**, **Slavonic**, and **Teutonic** (forming the West Aryan subdivision).

From **Keltic** come Welsh, Irish, and Manx; from **Romanic**, Latin and the Romance languages (French, Spanish, Italian, etc.); from **Hellenic**, Greek; and from **Slavonic**, Russian and Polish.

4. THE TEUTONIC GROUP requires a little further analysis. There are three main classes of languages belonging to this group:—

(1) Scandinavian, from which sprang Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, and Icelandic;

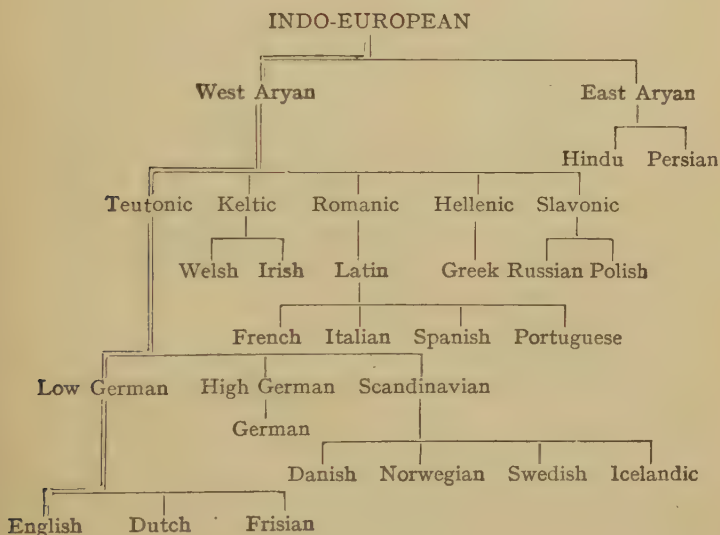
(2) High German, of which the modern representative is German;

(3) Low German, from which are derived **English**, Dutch, and Frisian.

5. ENGLISH—Thus we see that **English** is a member of the Low German class of languages and therefore bears the closest relationship to the other members of that class—Frisian and Dutch;

that this class, in turn, is part of a larger class or group—the Teutonic—and therefore falls into line with German and the Scandinavian languages ; and that, finally, this group is one of the members of a great family of languages which includes the Latin languages, Greek, Russian, Keltic, and some few Asiatic tongues.

6. These results may be neatly exhibited in **Tabular Form**, thus :—



The double lines mark the direct descent of English from the common original. The student is recommended to master this table as it exhibits the relationship of English to the various languages—ancient and modern—in a clear and striking manner.

7. **EARLY ENGLISH**—When our ancestors coming from the north of Germany and Denmark arrived in this country in the fifth century, they naturally brought with them their language ; and as they gradually extended their conquests and more and

more of their kindred settled here, their language became the language of our land, and it has, with modifications, occupied that position ever since.

It may be remarked that our forefathers were not all of one tribe and consequently did not speak exactly the same language, and traces of the differences still remain in the **dialects** of our present tongue. For example, the English of Yorkshire or Somerset or Norfolk differs considerably from true English—the standard of which must naturally be that of the best literature of modern times. To this the English spoken by the educated citizen of London and Dublin most nearly corresponds.

8. **DIALECTS**—The term English is derived from the name of one of the tribes of our ancestors—the Angles—who seem to have been the most powerful during the early years of the conquest. The collective name of **Old English** is given to the three main dialects of our forefathers. These dialects were:—

(1) **West Saxon**—the language of the South of England. This was the literary language; in it most of the extant monuments of our early prose literature were written.

(2) **Northumbrian**—the language of the North of England and South of Scotland, in which most of the poetry of Early English was written.

(3) **Mercian**—or the Midland dialect.

Curiously enough, it is from Mercian mainly and not, as might have been expected, from West Saxon, that English has been derived. This is no doubt in great measure due to three causes:—

(1) London and the surrounding districts became of greater and greater importance from the tenth century onwards, and the Mercian dialect was dominant there.

(2) The grammar of Mercian became simplified to a greater degree than that of the other dialects, and it had also appropriated a considerable number of useful foreign words. So that it had doubtless become the easiest and most useful dialect for conversation, and hence finally it formed the basis of the written language also.

(3) Chaucer, "the well of English undefiled," wrote in this dialect in its later form, and helped more than anyone else to fix it as the standard written English.

9. MODERN ENGLISH—Fundamentally, then, our language is the lineal descendant of the Old English of, we will say, the time of King Alfred; but in reality we find that our present tongue shows on the face of it a great divergence from the language of that period, both in actual **vocabulary** and in the **form** of its words.

An examination of the words of our language as found in a dictionary reveals the fact that less than half of our words can be traced to Old English sources, although in the language of everyday life more than three-quarters of the words used are of such origin. Further, we find that the **Grammar**—particularly the inflection of the various parts of speech—has been vastly simplified since the days of King Alfred. We must now inquire briefly into the cause of these discrepancies; and we shall find that it lies in the second process of development mentioned in § 2.

10. INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH—A casual examination of the words in a dictionary shows us not merely that there are certain more or less distant resemblances to words of other languages—for this might be accounted for by the common origin of all the languages—but that certain words are obviously coined from Greek and Latin, whilst others appear to be either French words or undoubtedly taken from French words. Modern English is in fact a **composite** language, and contains many elements besides those of native origin. Various influences were at various periods brought to bear upon English, and all left a greater or less trace upon it; of these the chief is **Latin**.

During no less than four periods the Latin language directly or indirectly modified the English language to a considerable extent.

11. EARLY LATIN INFLUENCES—

(1) When the Romans were in possession of Britain they added many words to the British language (now Welsh), some

few of which found their way into the language of our victorious ancestors. Some Latin terms had also been borrowed by our forefathers when they were dwelling on the Continent. Latin influence of this period survives mainly in the names of places, *e.g.* Chester, Gloucester, Winchester, and also in a few more or less military words, *e.g.* colony, port, street, mile.

(2) Owing to the **Reintroduction of Christianity** into this country by Augustine, many words, for the most part connected with the Church, but also educative words and names of foreign things, were gradually added to the language. Some of these words came originally from Greek.

Examples : altar, candle, creed, priest, clerk, school ; oyster, pear, elephant, inch, purple, crown.

12. INDIRECT LATIN INFLUENCE THROUGH NORMAN-FRENCH—

(3) During the two centuries succeeding the Norman Conquest, the English language had a hard struggle for existence ; it was indeed a question whether it could survive the stern opposition offered to it by the Norman-French. That it *did* survive, and to as great an extent as it did, is remarkable, and the fact can only be regarded as one more instance of the dogged perseverance of the English character. But the language that emanated from the struggle and at last received authority from King and Court as **English** was much changed, mainly, it must be confessed, to its advantage, and this chiefly in two ways :—

(a) English had been a highly *inflected* language, *i.e.* it had endings for gender, number, case, voice, mood, tense, and person, just as German has to this day ; most of these, we find, dropped out during this period.

(b) A large number of Norman-French words enriched the language. These dealt chiefly with war and the Feudal System, hunting, law, and home-life.

Examples : courage, honour, noble, squire, homage, battle, chivalry, arms ; chase, forest, course, venison ; case, counsel, damages, judge, justice, defendant ; affection, language, feast, spouse, cousin, mutton. **pork, beef.**

13. LATER LATIN INFLUENCE—

(4) The great impetus given to learning by the **Renaissance** movement of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries caused a considerable number of Latin—as well as Greek—words to be drafted into our language, words chiefly relating to culture and science. It may be here remarked that this tendency has operated indefinitely since that period and indeed is still operating: new words are formed as required for new inventions, etc., chiefly from Latin and Greek sources. More than 2000 words have been added to the language in this manner.

14. OTHER INFLUENCES—

(a) Keltic—As might be expected, some Welsh words were added to the language of the conquerors; they were, however, very few. Some were also borrowed later. Examples are: knoll, lad, lass, wed, pool.

(b) Scandinavian—The partial conquest of England by the Danes added a few words; but as the Danish tongue was already closely related to our own (see table, § 6), the result was, in the main, rather an alteration in the form of the words than the introduction of entirely new words. Examples of new words are: they, are, skill.

(c) Greek—Allusion has already been made to the influence of Greek during the Renaissance and since (§ 13); and many Greek words were introduced even earlier indirectly through Latin and French.

(d) Miscellaneous—We have words in our language derived from almost every existing language; in particular, we have many words from Modern French, German, Italian, and Spanish. Words borrowed in recent times frequently remain unchanged in form, *e.g.* French tête-à-tête, menu, etc.

15. PERIODS OF ENGLISH—Thus the History of the English Language may be conveniently divided into three periods:—

(1) The **Old English** period, up to about 1100, when the language was comparatively pure, *i.e.* free from foreign elements, and when the grammar was that of a highly inflected language like German or Latin.

(2) The **Middle English** period, from 1100 to 1500, when

the language was gradually freed from inflections, the grammar simplified, and the vocabulary considerably modified and extended by Norman-French influence.

(3) The **Modern English** period, from 1500, during which the grammar has remained practically unaltered—though it has been much more definitely fixed and established—and the vocabulary has been gradually enriched by borrowings from very varied sources.

NOTE ON MODERN ENGLISH.—Words are from day to day added to our language; they are obtained chiefly in the following manner:—

- (1) Foreign words borrowed directly: *e.g.* Umlaut (German); trek (Boer); brochure, ennui (French).
- (2) Words coined from Greek or Latin to express new ideas in science or new terms for inventions: *e.g.* inertia, motor (Latin); telegraph, ion, allotropy, isomerism (Greek); bicycle, automobile (partly Latin, partly Greek).
- (3) Words from names of men, especially great discoverers or inventors: *e.g.* galvanism, voltaic, ohm, marconigraph, tram, boycott, quixotic.
- (4) Words compounded from other English words often with a specialised meaning: *e.g.* blackleg, football, toad-in-the-hole.

16. THE ALPHABET—A few remarks about the English Alphabet may not be out of place here. The 26 letters which compose the Alphabet are divided into **Vowels** and **Consonants**.

A **vowel** is a sound that can be uttered by itself. The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u**.

A **consonant** is a sound that can only be uttered in conjunction with a vowel. The consonants include the remaining letters of the alphabet with the exception of **w** and **y**, which are called **semi-vowels** (*i.e.* they can be used either as consonants or vowels). Of the letters at present forming our alphabet, 22 were in existence in Old English, and in addition there were two letters for the sound **th**. **J** and **v**, consonantal forms of **i** and **u** respectively, **q** and **z** were introduced later; and **k** was also rare in Old English.

It may be remarked that our alphabet is extremely **imperfect**.

(1) It is **Redundant**. The letter **c** is useless, as its sound may be represented by **k** and **s**; similarly **q** = **k****w**, and **x** = **k****s** or **g****s** or **z**.

(2) It is **Defective**. There are 43 sounds in English, each of which should properly have a separate letter to denote it. As

there are but 26, some letters have to do duty for several sounds. There are, for instance, no single letters for the simple sound **ch** as in *cheek*, nor for that of **zh** as in *pleasure* (there represented falsely by **s**); the letter **a**, again, does duty for several sounds, as in *fate*, *father*, *fat*, *fall*, *farther*.

(3) It is **Inconsistent**. The same sound is differently represented: *e.g.* in the words *eve*, *receive*, *believe*, *leave*, *meet*.

To remedy these imperfections, **phonetic orthography**, *i.e.* spelling according to sound, has been proposed; but without discussing the merits of such systems, it may be remarked that besides concealing, in most cases, all traces of the history of the language, any new signs would be extremely inconvenient, seeing that not only the literature of England but practically that of all Europe is written in accordance with the present system.

17. THE MERITS AND DEFECTS OF OUR LANGUAGE—We may claim for English that it possesses one quality pre-eminently, in which it excels all other languages, *viz.* the extent and variety of its vocabulary. No language has appropriated to its use so many words from so varied sources. Hence the language is extremely rich, and therefore very well adapted for the expression of thought of every description. Then, too, its grammar is comparatively easy; the modes of marking gender, number, case, etc., are, as will be seen later, extremely simple, owing to the almost entire absence of inflections; the construction of sentences in English is, as in French, straightforward and terse and yet capable of artistic perfection.

Having said this, we must confess that there is one great drawback to the English language—its spelling. It follows from what has been said in § 16 that this is in no small measure due to the imperfections of our alphabet; and, besides, certain words are spelt quite irregularly, *e.g.* *phthisis*, *psalm*, *plough*. This makes English a difficult language to the foreigner; although in other respects it is decidedly easier to learn than most languages.

CHAPTER II

GRAMMAR AND THE SENTENCE

18. **G**RAMMAR consists of a logical statement and explanation of the rules and principles which govern our language at the present time.

If we were to invent a new language we should probably begin with the creation of certain fundamental and important words. But before we had proceeded far, it would be necessary to formulate certain rules which should govern both the construction of the language and the formation of secondary or derived words.

It would be our aim to make these rules as simple and of as general application as possible; and we should take care as we proceeded further in the development of the language that all words and constructions strictly conformed thereto.

But in the case of a language already in existence like English, Grammar comes not before the language, but **after** it. Such creation of Grammar as that described above is impossible; we have to take the language **as we find it**, and our grammatical rules must be drawn up in accordance with the employment of the language by the best modern writers.

19. **METHOD OF GRAMMAR**—Thus English Grammar is necessarily an **Inductive Science**. The material on which the student of Grammar has to work is the language as spoken and written; his task is to examine as many and as varied specimens as possible, and from these to try and discover the general laws underlying the language.

And when such laws—constituting the **Grammar** of the Language—are definitely formulated, they serve at least two useful purposes:—

(1) They teach us what is correct and what is incorrect in the

language, and hence help us to speak and write correctly and without ambiguity.

(2) They aid in the preservation of the language in its present settled form and check any influences which may tend to degrade it, such as slang or Americanisms.

20. DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR—Grammar includes in its treatment:—

(1) **Accidence**, which deals with the classification of words and an examination of their forms and the changes in those forms for various purposes.

(2) **Syntax**, which consists of a methodical summation of the rules and principles governing the construction and arrangement of words in sentences, and an enquiry into the relationship of the words in such sentences.

(3) **Orthography** and **Orthoepy**, which deal with the correct spelling and pronunciation of words. On this part of the subject we shall only be able to touch incidentally.

It is difficult and not always desirable to draw a hard and fast line between these divisions of Grammar—particularly the first two—for both syntax and accidence of a part of speech may often be best treated together. The use of words in composition, in fact, helps to illustrate their form and to explain their classification; and frequently it also explains their spelling.

21. THE SENTENCE—It is one of the prerogatives of the human race that individuals can utter their ideas to others by means of **speech**. By a further development of civilisation, they are enabled to explain their thoughts intelligibly not only in this manner but also by a system of written signs, provided such signs are understood by all to whom they are presented.

When we speak or when we write our thoughts are expressed by means of **sentences** rather than by separate words. In dealing with Grammar then, our first aim must be to understand clearly what this instrument of human thought—the sentence—really is. **A Sentence** may be defined as the expression of a single thought.

22. PARTS OF A SENTENCE—We find that there are two main elements present in a sentence:—

(1) Words denoting what we are talking or writing about—the **Subject**.

(2) Words denoting what we say about the thing under discussion—the **Predicate**.

Logically, then, every sentence falls naturally into its two components—the Subject and the Predicate; and for the present we shall keep to these two main divisions.

23. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE—When a sentence contains only one simple statement, without any subsidiary remarks, it is called a **Simple Sentence**.

It may be the expression of:—

(1) An assertion: (a) Man walks.

(b) They have not gone.

(2) A question: (a) Has he spoken?

(b) Have they not replied?

(3) A command: (a) Go!

(b) Do not obey!

(4) An exclamation: (a) Long live the king!

(b) May those men never want bread!

If we examine these sentences we shall easily be able to perceive the two logical elements mentioned in the last paragraph.

Take the first sentence: *Man walks*.

We ask ourselves: What statement are we making? The answer is that some person or thing *walks*. The word *walks* is therefore the *Predicate* of the sentence. Further we ask: About whom or what is this statement made? The answer is that it is *man* who walks. *Man* is therefore the *Subject* of the sentence.

Again in the last sentence: *May those men never want bread!* if we ask the same questions we see:—

(1) That we are talking about *those men* (Subject).

(2) That we are wishing that they *may never want bread* (Predicate).

24. LOGICAL ANALYSIS—TABULAR FORM—The other sentences may on the same principle be subdivided thus:—

No. of Sentence	Subject	Predicate
1 <i>b</i>	They	have not gone
2 <i>a</i>	He	has spoken
2 <i>b</i>	They	have not replied
3 <i>a</i>	—	go
3 <i>b</i>	—	do not obey
4 <i>a</i>	The king	live long

25. NOTES ON THE ABOVE ANALYSIS—(1) With reference to sentences 3*a* and 3*b* expressing *command*, it will be noticed that the Subject column is left blank. The words *thou* or *you* are, of course, understood in such sentences and may be supplied within brackets by the student.

(2) In sentences 2*a* and 2*b* denoting a question, we see that the analysis is exactly the same as if the sentence were affirmative: thus *Has he spoken?* is analysed just as *He has spoken*.

(3) In most sentences it will be observed that the Subject precedes the Predicate; this is usually the case in English. There are, however, exceptions, one of which is exemplified in sentence 4*a*, *Long live the King!*; whilst in 2*a* and 2*b* we find the Subject between two parts of the Predicate.

26. FURTHER EXAMPLES—We shall now give two rather more **complicated** illustrations of the simple sentence. In these, several words form the Subject and several the Predicate; the rule to be observed is that in analysing them all words connected with the main idea of the Subject or of the Predicate must be placed respectively with each.

(*a*) *The soldiers in the town were unable to obtain the necessary provisions in time.* Using the tests of § 23 we see that:—

(1) We are talking about—*the soldiers in the town.*

(2) We are saying concerning them that they—*were unable to obtain the necessary provisions in time.*

(*b*) *This man, admired by the whole nation, eventually died a martyr to his cause.* On reflection we shall perceive:—

(1) That whilst the main subject is *this man*, the words *admired by the whole nation* are closely bound up with *this man*;

consequently the subject is: *This man admired by the whole nation.*

- (2) In a similar manner, the Predicate consists of the words :
eventually died a martyr to his cause.

27. PARTS OF SPEECH—Before we proceed any further with the subject of analysis of sentences, it will be necessary to investigate the classification of words into **Parts of Speech**, as they are called. We shall then be in a position to judge of what kind of words the Subject and Predicate consist, and to subdivide them grammatically. This classification, accordingly, forms the subject of our next chapter.

The student should note that the elementary analysis of a sentence which has at present been given is **logical** rather than **grammatical** ; although as grammar is itself logical, grammatical analysis, of which we shall shortly treat, will essentially follow the principles laid down up to the present, and will seek to amplify and extend them.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II.

1. What is meant by Grammar ? Explain its chief subdivisions.
2. In what way should the subject of the Grammar of a modern language be approached ?
3. What is meant by a sentence ? What different forms of thought may a simple sentence express ?
4. Analyse logically into Subject and Predicate :—
 - (1) The men were laughing.
 - (2) We are seven.
 - (3) Do not go yet.
 - (4) May I be there to see !
 - (5) Give me that money.
 - (6) Have they asked him that question ?
 - (7) They all decided to leave the country.
 - (8) A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
 - (9) A penny saved is a penny gained.
 - (10) Most of our friends agree with us.
 - (11) An honest tale speeds best.
 - (12) A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.

CHAPTER III

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

28. **PARTS OF SPEECH** are classes into which words are divided according to their use in speech or writing. There are **eight** Parts of Speech: Noun, Verb, Pronoun, Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

29. **THE NOUN**—We have already referred (§ 22) to the fact that when man speaks he says something concerning some person or thing. His natural desire is to give **Names** to the objects he sees around him, whether they be animate or inanimate; and once fixed, each name remains applicable only to one particular object or to others like it. One object he calls *tree*, another *river*, a third *John*. Words like these which are names, we call **Nouns**. [Lat. *nomen* = name.]

NOTE.—The term *Object* is, for the present, used to include Persons, Places, Things, and Qualities. In later chapters, the same term is employed in a different sense for the object of a Verb; but no ambiguity is likely to result from its present application.

30. **THE VERB**—Then, again, man uses words for what he says concerning objects: he says that they *walk, move, shine, fall*. Words employed for this purpose are generally the most important words in the sentence: hence they are called **Verbs**. [Lat. *verbum* = word.]

31. **FUNDAMENTAL PARTS OF SPEECH**—With these two kinds of words we could express our ideas, though it is true that with these alone conversation would be very difficult indeed; we should be obliged to repeat ourselves over and over again, and even then fail to make our meaning clear. It will be explained presently how, in order to avoid these difficulties, other Parts of Speech are employed; the point here to be emphasised

is that man *could* manage, and probably *did* manage with these in primitive times. The Noun and the Verb are therefore designated the **Essential** or **Fundamental** Parts of Speech. It is an open question as to which of the two originated first in primitive times; according to our mode of thought, at all events, both seem to be absolutely *necessary* to any language, whilst other parts seem to be merely *convenient*.

A combination of these two Parts of Speech constitutes the simplest form of a sentence: *e.g. John walks ; rivers flow ; trees fall*. Here the logical Subject and Predicate are represented in their simplest forms as *Noun* and *Verb* respectively.

32. THE PRONOUN—To avoid the constant repetition of the same names in ordinary conversation, small words are employed instead of those names when they have once been mentioned, or are understood by those concerned without being mentioned. Such words stand in the place of Nouns, and are therefore called **Pronouns**. [Lat. *pro* = in the place of.]

Consider this sentence:—

“Mrs Jones met the gentleman *who* dined with *her* yesterday; and as soon as *she* recognised *him*, *she* spoke to *him*. *She* did *this* on the impulse of the moment.”

Here the words in italics are Pronouns of various kinds. Without these we should be obliged to say:—

“Mrs Jones met the gentleman—the gentleman dined with Mrs Jones yesterday—and as soon as Mrs Jones recognised the gentleman, Mrs Jones spoke to the gentleman. Mrs Jones spoke to the gentleman on the impulse of the moment.”

The simplicity and economy of the first sentence as compared with the second are obvious.

The most commonly used Pronouns are those which are called Personal, viz. : I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they. (§ 121.)

33. THE ADJECTIVE—A name being assigned to a certain class of objects, the members of which resemble each other in certain characteristics (*e.g. man*), it becomes necessary to add words to distinguish one individual of the class from another, or to describe a particular specimen more fully. Thus *men* may be

divided into *tall* men and *short* men ; into *fair* men and *dark* men ; into *stupid* men and *clever* men ; and so forth.

Words added to Nouns for this purpose, viz. to describe further or to discriminate the objects named are termed **Adjectives**. [Lat. *adjectivum* = added to.]

It should be noted that in thus adding Adjectives we affect the meaning in two ways :—

(1) We **describe** the object **more fully** or **increase the intension**. The word *man* implies a being having certain well-known characteristics ; but when we speak of a *short dark man* we are describing our object much more fully by adding two more qualities.

(2) At the same time we **limit** its application or **decrease the extension**. The word *man* applies to the enormous number of beings denoted by that name ; whereas the words *short dark man* apply to a comparatively small number of those beings.

34. THE ADVERB—As the Adjective is thus used to qualify a *Noun* or *Pronoun*, so we need words to qualify *other Parts of Speech*, particularly the Verb. Thus when we say : “The man walks,” the verb *walks* applies to a certain well-known action performed by man. If, however, we want to express something about the walking of a particular man we may say that he walks *quickly* or *slowly* ; or he walks *often* or *here*. Words thus added to Verbs (and other Parts of Speech) to extend their meaning are termed **Adverbs**. The remarks made with reference to increase of intension and decrease of extension by Adjectives (§ 33) are equally applicable to Adverbs.

35. THE PREPOSITION—To indicate the relationship between two *objects* which are connected in some way, we use yet another Part of Speech. For instance, we see before us a book and a table, and we want to express some connection between them. We say accordingly : the book is *on* the table, the book is *under* the table, or the book is *near* the table. Words thus placed before a Noun to indicate the relationship which the object named bears to some other object, are termed **Prepositions**. [Lat. *præpositum* = placed in front of.]

36. THE CONJUNCTION—In the same way we employ a

class of words to indicate the relationship between two *thoughts*, and hence to connect two sentences—the expression of those thoughts—with each other. Thus we say: He arrived *but* was too late; he went out *and* soon returned.

Words which thus join sentences together are termed **Conjunctions**. [Lat. *conjunctio* = a joining together.]

NOTE.—It must be observed that Conjunctions also connect *words* as well as *sentences*, e.g. the man *and* the woman came; his house stands between the church *and* the school.

37. THE INTERJECTION—Lastly, there are certain exclamatory words in our language such as: *alas!* *oh!* *ah!* which are called **Interjections**. [Lat. *interjectum* = thrown among.]

Strictly speaking, these words are not *Parts of Speech* at all, for they are only a noisy utterance like the cry of an animal; they do not, in fact, represent any *thought* at all, as do other Parts of Speech, but are rather the expression of *feeling* or *emotion*. They have been called “the miserable refuge of the speechless.” Yet, as they are actually *words* and are written down as part of our language, it seems best to class them as a Part of Speech.

38. TABULAR FORM OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH—The Parts of Speech may be roughly tabulated thus:—

Essential :

1. Noun

2. Verb

Convenient : Pronoun Adjective Preposition Adverb Conjunction

Emotional : Interjection.

Such a form roughly indicates the development of the Parts of Speech from the two fundamental parts. It must be remembered, however (as will be further illustrated later on), that a Preposition now joins not only Nouns but also other Parts of Speech together, and that an Adverb modifies other Parts of Speech than Verbs, though these are their main functions.

39. DISCRIMINATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH—It is frequently impossible to determine what Part of Speech a word is, when it is isolated. As has been previously mentioned, it is the *sentence* which is the expression of human thought, and

it is from this that we must work. This is especially necessary in the discrimination of the Parts of Speech, for in English more than in any other language the same word may represent different Parts of Speech, according to its use in the sentence. For instance, we may have the sentences :—

- (1) *Black* is a colour.
- (2) A *black* man was present.
- (3) *Black* my boots at once !

In the first instance, *black* is the name of something, and is therefore a **Noun** ; in the second, it describes *man*, and is thus an **Adjective** ; in the third, it gives a command, and is therefore a **Verb**.

40. ELEMENTARY PARSING—The process of assigning various words to their classes, *i.e.* picking out the words and stating the Part of Speech of each, is an elementary form of **Parsing**.

In learning to do this, the student should ask himself the questions :—

(1) Which words in the given sentences *say something about* an object? These will be Verbs ; they generally denote an action or state of existence.

(2) Which words are *names*? These will be Nouns. It may be noted that the Adjectives *a* or *the* can generally be mentally supplied before Nouns, if not already present.

(3) Which words *stand in the place of a Noun*? These will be Pronouns ; they are usually very short words.

(4) Which words are used *with* a Noun to *describe* it in some way? These will be Adjectives.

(5) Which words are used with a Verb to *modify* its meaning? These will be Adverbs ; they tell us when, why, where, or how concerning the Verb.

(6) Which words *join a Noun* to some other word? These will *generally* be Prepositions ; they usually precede the Noun.

(7) Which words *join Sentences*? These will be Conjunctions.

(8) Which words appear to express *no thought* but rather a *feeling*? These will be Interjections ; they are usually followed by an exclamation mark (!).

41. EXAMPLE OF ELEMENTARY PARSING—Take the sentence: *The head of the firm immediately asked the poor man whether he would accept the small salary.*

The words *asked*, *would accept* make statements: they are Verbs.

Head, *firm*, *man*, *salary* are names of objects: they are Nouns.

He stands for *poor man*, and is thus a Pronoun.

The poor and *small* describe *man* and *salary* respectively: they are Adjectives.

Immediately tells us something about the *asking*, viz. *when* it was done: it is therefore an Adverb.

Whether joins the sentences "The head . . . man" and "he . . . salary": it is thus a Conjunction.

Of connects *the firm* with *the head*, and is thus a Preposition.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III.

1. What are Parts of Speech? Which are essential? Explain briefly their origin.

2. Discuss the advantages gained by the employment of the Pronoun and the Adjective in a language.

3. What are Prepositions and Conjunctions? Explain what functions they perform in the language.

4. Write sentences containing the following words, and state what Parts of Speech they are in your sentences: *in*, *pen*, *long*, *stand*, *good*, *now*, *if*, *ship*.

5. Form sentences showing each of the words *light* and *fast* as three different parts of speech; and each of the words *hope*, *doubt*, *fleet*, *iron* as two different parts.

6. Name the Parts of Speech of each word in the following sentences:—

(1) Our pleasant Willy ah! is dead of late.

(2) 'Tis better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.

(3) They soon agreed to the conditions he proposed.

(4) Fine feathers make fine birds.

(5) I hope that you understand the meaning of this chapter.

7. Name the Parts of Speech of each word in Question 4 of Chapter ii.

8. Classify the words in the following passage according to the parts of speech they are used for in it:—

Lo! here the gentle lark, *weary* of rest,
From his moist cabinet mounts *up* on *high*,
And wakes the morning, from whose *silver* breast
The sun ariseth *in* his majesty.

Show that the words printed in italics in these lines can be used for other Parts of Speech besides those they represent here.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

42. **A**NALYSIS OF SENTENCES, *i.e.* their subdivision into various parts, forms an important part of our study of English, and rightly so. For, in the first place, it is an excellent exercise for the mind; it teaches us to be critical and logical, and compels us to use our reasoning faculties at every point. Further, Analysis, like Parsing, with which it is closely connected, is the handmaid of Grammar proper. By its means we may discover for ourselves the mutual relations of the various elements of sentences, and this should lead to a clear conception of the importance and correctness of every word we speak or write. With such a knowledge of English we are largely concerned.

43. Before passing on to a more detailed examination of each Part of Speech, we shall therefore deal with this important subject of Analysis. It has already been shown that the Simple Sentence is capable of Logical Analysis into two parts—Subject and Predicate.

We shall now inquire of what each of these divisions may consist, and shall then proceed to develop our Analysis one stage further.

44. **THE SUBJECT** consists of a **Noun** or its **Equivalent**. The latter may be:—

(1) A Pronoun : *e.g.* *He* runs.

(2) An Adjective and a Noun : *e.g.* *The wise man* acts thus.

(3) An Infinitive or Gerund : *e.g.* *To obey* is better than sacrifice.

(4) A Phrase (see § 48) : *e.g.* *Early to bed* is a good maxim.

45. **THE PREDICATE** is the part of a sentence which is absolutely essential. A sentence may occur without a Subject, *e.g.* *Go away!* or *Let him come to me!* although the Subject is in

such cases always implied or understood. There *are* instances in which a sentence exists without a Predicate (§ 190); but in such cases it can always be readily supplied. The main part of the Predicate must always be a **Finite Verb**. No other Parts of Speech can take its place. Concerning this term a few words of explanation are necessary.

46. THE FINITE VERB—The word Finite means *limited* or *bounded* as contrasted with *Infinite*—unlimited, unbounded.

A *Finite Verb* is one which makes a definite statement which may be (see § 23) an Assertion, Question, Command, or Exclamation. It is called Finite because it is limited with regard to *person* and *number*; thus, the Finite Verb *wishes* can only refer to *he* or *she* (the 3rd person, singular number).

An *Infinite Verb*, on the other hand, refers to no definite Subject at all and consequently has no number or person. It includes three parts of the Verb:—

(1) The Infinitive Mood: *e.g.* to err, to have decided, to be forgiven. It can in most cases be recognised by being preceded by the Preposition *to*.

(2) The Participles, Present and Past: *e.g.* admiring, forgiven. These usually end in *-ing* and *-d* or *-n* respectively.

(3) The Gerund: *e.g.* reading. It always ends in *-ing*.

47. It is most important for the student to grasp the fact that **none** of the **infinite** parts of the Verb are sufficient by themselves to form the Predicate of a Sentence because they do not make a statement, or, in other words, do not tell us anything. *E.g.* "Admiring pictures . . ." tells us nothing by itself; we naturally expect some statement to follow such as: " . . . shows good taste." This addition contains a *Finite Verb*: *shows*.

48. THE PHRASE—A group of words which does not contain a Finite Verb, and which therefore does not form a sentence, is called a **Phrase**. Phrases may be classified according as they are equivalent to:—

(1) A Noun: *e.g.* *What to do next* was the question.

(2) An Adjective: *e.g.* A bird *in the hand* is worth two *in the bush*.

(3) An Adverb : *e.g.* *His business being done*, he returned.

49. COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE—A simple sentence contains **only one** Finite Verb ; this Verb may, however, consist of several words, *e.g.* *We were being entertained*. Besides the Verb, the Predicate may contain other words requisite to complete the meaning of the sentence. These may be:—

(1) An Object ; (2) A Complement ; (3) An Extension.

50. THE OBJECT—If someone says : “ He had . . . ” or “ He hit . . . ” we naturally wait for a conclusion to the sentence ; he had *something* (*e.g.* money, a book) : he hit *somebody* or *something* (*e.g.* the boy or the table). Verbs which thus require a Noun or its equivalent to complete their sense are called **Transitive**, because the action implied by the Verb *passes over* to the person or thing denoted by the Noun following [*Lat. transitum* = passed over] ; and the latter is called the **Object** to the Verb.

When, however, someone says : “ He laughed ” or “ He slept, ” we do not wait for any conclusion, because none is necessary : the statements made are complete in themselves. Verbs which thus require no Object are termed **Intransitive**.

51. THE COMPLEMENT—There are also Verbs which, although they do not require an Object as above defined, yet do require some word or phrase to complete their sense.

Thus if we say : “ He was . . . ” or “ He seems . . . ” some other words are evidently necessary to make sense ; thus we might say : “ He was *happy* ” or “ he was *king* ” or “ he seems *unhappy*. ”

The words which are added to such a Verb are called the **Complement** of the Verb. It should be noticed that there is a fundamental difference between an Object and a Complement. In the sentence : He hit *the boy*, the words *the boy* (object) necessarily refer to a *different* person from the word *he* (subject) ; whereas in the sentence : He was king, the words *he* and *king* refer to the *same* person. There are one or two exceptions to this statement, *e.g.* “ He hit *himself* ” (object) and “ I am glad that I am not *you* ” (complement) ; but the explanation of such exceptions is obvious.

52. THE EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE consists of an Adverb or Adverbial Phrase which modifies the meaning of the Verb. Thus we say: "He laughs" and then proceed to describe this laughter more fully; thus we may mention *how*, *when*, *where*, or *why* he laughs, e.g.

He laughs *loudly* (manner).

He laughs *all day* (time).

He laughs *in school* (place).

He laughs *at the joke* (reason).

53. ANALYSIS—Our primary logical division of a sentence into Subject and Predicate may now be further developed; we shall henceforth analyse a Simple Sentence into:—

1. Subject.

2. Verb (and Complement, if any).

3. Object, if any.

4. Extension of the Predicate, if any.

For brevity we shall name these divisions **Subject**, **Predicate**, **Object**, and **Extension**.

54. EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS—

(a) *The men saw our friends clearly.*

We must first find the **Verb**. This is easily seen to be: *saw*. Next, we ask *who* saw? Answer: *the men* saw. *The men* is therefore the **Subject**.

Then we put the further question: *whom* or *what* was it that the men saw? Answer: the men saw *our friends* (**Object**).

Lastly, what does the word *clearly* tell us? It evidently says something concerning the Verb *saw*, viz. *how* the men saw our friends. *Clearly* is therefore an **Extension** of Manner.

(b) *During this period the beloved king was insane.*

Using the same tests we pick out *was* as the Verb, and *the beloved king* as the Subject of the Sentence.

What part of the Sentence is the word *insane*? It is *not* the Object, because it refers to the same person as *king*; it completes the sense of *was* (part of the verb *to be*) and is therefore the **Complement**. Lastly, the words *during this period* tell us *when* the king was insane, and therefore form an **Extension** of Time.

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55. We append a few **Specimens of Analysis in Tabular Form**. For the sake of clearness, the Tabular form is recommended at this elementary stage of Analysis.

- Sentences : A. I pause for a reply.
 B. Send him away at once !
 C. A new broom sweeps clean.
 D. The young man showed great ability in his work.
 E. Among the blind the one-eyed man is a king.
 F. Antony praised Brutus, the noblest of them all.

Sentence	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
A	I	pause	—	for a reply
B	[You]	send	him	(1) away (2) at once
C	A new broom	sweeps	—	clean
D	The young man	showed	great ability	in his work
E	The one-eyed man	is	—	among the blind
F	Antony	a king praised	Brutus, the noblest of them all	—

56. We have preferred to postpone the consideration of certain difficulties in the Analysis of a Simple Sentence to a later chapter on Analysis (Chap. xiii.), because at the present stage they would only perplex the beginner. Their solution will be much more easily understood after a study of the intervening chapters. The examples for Analysis given at the end of this chapter are therefore for the most part of an elementary character.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV.

1. In what manner may the Predicate of a sentence be completed ? Give examples.
2. What may form the Subject or Object of a sentence ? Give instances.
3. Explain the difference between a Finite and an Infinite Verb. Pick out all the Infinite Verbs in this set of questions.
4. Distinguish a Phrase from a Sentence. Give examples of various kinds of Phrases.
5. Analyse :—
 - (1) His name was handed down to posterity.
 - (2) We have seen his star in the east.
 - (3) The army, having no hope of victory, surrendered.

- (4) The enthusiastic audience cheered him.
- (5) No man can serve two masters.
- (6) The Yorkist leader plucked a white rose from the tree.
- (7) Why did not the famous general lead his army to victory ?
- (8) Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.
- (9) The lion, king of the beasts, was very ill.
- (10) Are they expecting their old friend to-day ?
- (11) Close on the hounds the hunter came
To cheer them on the vanished game.
- (12) England, with all thy faults I love thee still.
- (13) We buried him darkly at dead of night.
- (14) Once more he stepped into the street.
- (15) The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.
- (16) The Duke of York so dread
The eager vaward led.
- (17) Yet one man for one moment
Stood out before the crowd.
- (18) The fisher left his skiff to rock on Tamar's glittering waves.
- (19) The dog and man at first were friends.
- (20) Be a hero in the strife !
- (21) The leaf has perished in the green.
- (22) The sports of children satisfy the child.
- (23) Praise undeserved is scandal in disguise.
- (24) Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
- (25) How charming is divine philosophy !
- (26) Our acts our angels are, or good or ill.
- (27) Things ill-got had ever bad success.
- (28) To him the mighty mother did unveil
Her awful face.
- (29) The lady strange made answer meet.
- (30) At the first plunge the horse sank low.
- (31) The burning stars of the abyss were hurled
Into the depths of heaven.
- (32) Before their eyes the wizard lay.
- (33) On thee too fondly did my memory hang.
- (34) Sadness on the soul of Ida fell.
- (35) I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers
From the seas and the streams.

6. Analyse, and state the Parts of Speech of the words in *italics* :—

- (1) God prosper *long* our *noble* king,
Our lives and safeties all !
- (2) *So work* the honey-bees.
- (3) The *unwearied* sun from day to day
Does his Creator's power display.
- (4) Thy cities shall with *commerce* shine.
- (5) In gallant *trim* the *gilded* vessel goes.
- (6) A *barking* sound the shepherd hears.
- (7) *Out of* the sea came *he* !
- (8) The ship is sinking *beneath* the tide.
- (9) The *spirits* of your fathers
Shall start from every wave !
- (10) And *must* thy *lyre*, so long *divine*,
Degenerate *into* hands like mine ?

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- (11) Fear no *more* the heat of the sun
Nor the winter's furious rages.
- (12) An exile from *home splendour* dazzles in vain.
- (13) The sea, the blue lone sea hath *one*.
- (14) Seek'st *thou* the plashy brink
Of weedy lake, or marge of river *wide* ?
- (15) *There* she weaves by night and day
A magic web *with* colours gay.

Further examples for practice will be found at the end of Chapter xiii.

CHAPTER V

NOUNS

57. **A NOUN** is the **Name** of any object of our thoughts. Thus Nouns are the names of—

- (1) Persons : *e.g.* John, Smith.
- (2) Sets of people : *e.g.* crowd, jury.
- (3) Places : *e.g.* London, England.
- (4) Things : *e.g.* book, stone, town.
- (5) Materials : *e.g.* gold, leather, oxygen.
- (6) Qualities : *e.g.* beauty, mercy, colour.
- (7) Actions : *e.g.* walking, riding, expansion.
- (8) States of existence : *e.g.* sickness, health.

58. **CLASSIFICATION**—Nouns may be classified in various ways; for clearness and consistency we prefer the following divisions :—

I. Concrete { 1. Proper.
 2. Common.

II. Abstract.

A Concrete Noun is the name of some object which has an actual existence whether we are thinking about it or not : *e.g.* John, man, tree, air, crowd. Sets 1-5 of the Nouns in § 57 are all Concrete Nouns.

An Abstract Noun is the name of something which has no actual existence of itself but is only a conception of the mind : *e.g.* beauty, holiness, hardness, health. Thus we know that a flower, a landscape, a face, a picture are all *beautiful* in different ways, and hence we form a *conception* of some quality underlying all these concrete examples ; to this quality we give the name of *beauty*. Sets 6-8 of the Nouns in § 57 are Abstract Nouns.

59. PROPER NOUNS—We give names to particular or individual objects as distinguished from the name of a class of objects. The Noun employed as the special name of an object—its **own** name—is called a **Proper Noun**. [Lat. *proprium* = own, belonging to.] Such Nouns almost always refer to Persons or Places, and it is customary to distinguish them by an initial **Capital Letter**.

Examples: John, Smith, Jupiter; London, Nile, Italy.

NOTE.—It may be remarked here that although *John*, for instance, is the name of many individuals, yet when we think or speak of *John* it is not in connection with all who bear that name, but of *one* particular individual: *i.e.* the name *John* does not include the general characteristics of a set of men named John, but solely those of the man of whom we are thinking. *John* is therefore a *Proper Noun*.

60. COMMON NOUNS—Similarly names are given, as has been said, to classes of objects, and these serve to denote the general characteristics of the various members of those classes.

Thus the word *man* denotes not one particular individual, but any specimen of the beings who have the qualities commonly attributed to man. Since a Noun employed for this purpose is *general* in its application, it is called a **Common Noun**.

Examples: boat, man, school, word, town, foot.

61. There are three **Special Kinds of Common Nouns** of which mention must be made:—

(1) **Collective Nouns**—names given to a group of objects when considered as a **whole**. Examples: crowd, jury, committee, flock, crew. We say: "*The crowd was noisy,*" "*The committee has passed the resolution,*" the singular Verbs showing that we regard *the crowd, the committee*, as one object.

(2) **Nouns of Multitude**—the same words used **distributively**. In this case our minds are concentrated *not* on the whole but on the **separate parts** of the object. Thus we say: "*The crowd were expressing their opinions freely,*" "*The jury do not all agree with the judge.*"

(3) **Nouns of Material**—names expressing the substance or matter of which an object is made.

Examples: cloth, gold, leather, air.

62. PROPER NOUNS USED AS COMMON, and vice versa—

(a) When an object has some special characteristic, we sometimes apply the Proper Noun which is its name to other objects of a similar nature. It then becomes practically a *Common Noun*. Thus we might call a great discoverer “the Columbus of the twentieth century”; or we might speak of someone as “a Solomon,” or “a Samson,” or “a Venus,” if they possessed great wisdom, strength, or beauty. This usage is frequently found in poetry, *e.g.*

Here was a *Cæsar*; when comes such another?
A *Daniel* come to judgment!
The Black Prince, that young *Mars* of men.

The Proper Noun *Cæsar* became the *title* of the Roman Emperors and hence passed into a Common Noun; whence the words Czar and Kaiser. Note that the initial Capital Letter is retained in such cases.

(b) Conversely, if one specimen of a class becomes extremely important to our minds, the common name of the class comes at length to signify that specimen only, and it consequently becomes a *Proper Noun*.

Examples: *The Tower* (meaning the Tower of London; *The City* (referring to a certain part of London); *The Lord* (speaking of God). A child uses *Father* with reference to *his own* father. Note that in such cases the Noun takes an initial Capital.

63. ABSTRACT NOUNS USED AS CONCRETE (Proper and Common)—

(a) Sometimes an Abstract Quality is personified: its name then becomes a *Proper Noun*, *e.g.* His *Majesty* the King, His *Honour*; also in:—

She sat like *Patience* on a monument,
Wisdom is justified of her children.
Peace hath her victories.

(b) Or an Abstract Quality may be applied to a class of objects which it especially suits; its name then becomes a *Common Noun*, *e.g.* a youth (= a man having the qualities of youth); similarly, a justice (of the peace), the nobility (= nobles).

The reverse process—a Concrete Noun becoming Abstract—is

very rare, owing to the ease with which an Abstract Noun may be formed from a Concrete, *e.g.* manliness or manhood from man; darkness from dark; slavery from slave.

NOTE.—It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a Noun is Abstract or Concrete. In addition to what has been said above, a useful test is: can the Noun in the sense in which it is used be pluralised? If so, it has become a Common Noun: for Abstract Nouns have no plural (§ 73). *E.g.* The *beauties* (=the beautiful things) of Nature, our *sins* (=acts of sinful nature); both these are Common Nouns.

64. Nouns and Pronouns are changed either in form or in use to indicate differences in **Gender, Number, and Case**.

65. **GENDER** is a grammatical distinction or method of classification of Nouns and Pronouns. In the majority of languages the Gender (Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter) is quite artificial: it is based on the **form** of the words—particularly their endings—rather than on their meaning. Thus *spoon, fork, and knife*, are respectively Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter in German; *year* Masculine, *table* Feminine, *war* Neuter in Latin; *book* Masculine, *pen* Feminine in French. But in English, the Gender of a word, as a rule, corresponds with the **sex** of the object denoted. Thus names denoting Males are of the **Masculine** Gender, and those denoting Females of the **Feminine** Gender; whilst those denoting inanimate objects are of the **Neuter** Gender. The Neuter Gender is, strictly speaking, not a Gender at all in English, since it merely includes words which fall under neither the Masculine nor the Feminine Classes, and thus really comprises words which possess no Gender at all. [Lat. *neuter* = neither.] A fourth Gender is generally mentioned as existing in English. This is **Common** Gender, which is applicable to Nouns which may denote either male or female beings, and which may, therefore, be either Masculine or Feminine, according to the circumstances.

Examples : Masculine : boy, man, actor, gander, king.
 Feminine : girl, woman, actress, goose, queen.
 Common : infant, person, student, sheep, rabbit.
 Neuter : book, fire, table, hat.

66. REMARKS ON GENDER—

(1) From the above it will be seen that, strictly speaking, English Nouns have no *Gender* at all. The so-called *Genders*

are not qualities of the words, as in other languages, but mere sex-names referring to the objects represented. The word Gender in reference to English Nouns must, therefore, be understood as referring to these sex-names. Of the modes of marking the Feminine (§ 67), only the first is grammatical; the others merely show the names of females corresponding to those of the males.

(2) When an inanimate object or a conception is personified, its name frequently assumes the Masculine or Feminine Gender, especially in poetry. Thus *the Sun, Time, the Winds* call to mind the idea of strength, and hence are usually accounted Masculine in English; *the Moon, Justice, Purity, Nature* carry with them ideas of gentleness or fruitfulness, and therefore are frequently regarded as Feminine. This, however, is by no means a general rule; for instance, a ship is spoken of as *she*, and yet a certain kind of ship is called a *man-of-war*.

(3) On the other hand, the Neuter Gender is often assigned to a Noun denoting a living being, when no stress is laid on its actual sex. Thus we say:—

Where is the *baby*? Is *it* out?

How is your *dog*? *It* is dead.

67. MODES OF MARKING THE MASCULINE AND FEMININE—In English, there are three general modes of marking these Genders:—

(1) By varying the termination of a word. Feminines are formed from Masculines in this manner:—

(a) By addition of *-ess* with or without change of the Masculine.

This is by far the most common of the Feminine endings.

Examples:

Masculine

host
poet
lion
god
actor
duke

Feminine

hostess
poetess
lioness
goddess (*d* doubled)
actress (*o* omitted)
duchess (*ch* for *k*)

(b) By addition of *-ix*, *-ine*, and other endings, with or without change.

Examples :

Masculine
testator
executor
hero
czar

Feminine
testatrix
executrix
heroine
czarina

(2) By employing different words for Masculine and Feminine.
A list of the most important may be useful.

<i>Persons</i>		<i>Animals</i>	
<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
1. <i>General :</i> man gentleman boy lad bachelor monk wizard	woman lady girl lass maid, spinster nun witch	boar buck bull cock dog drake gander horse ram	sow doe cow hen bitch duck goose mare ewe
2. <i>Relations :</i> husband father son brother uncle	wife mother daughter sister aunt	<i>Less common :</i> bullock } steer } colt drone hart sire stag	heifer filly bee roe dam hind
3. <i>Titles :</i> king earl lord sir	queen countess lady madam		

(3) By employing compound words, one of which has gender :
e.g.

Masculine
grandfather
he-goat
peacock

Feminine
grandmother
she-goat
peahen

NOTES.—(1) Some of the above Masculines and Feminines are applied indiscriminately to animals where the sex is of no importance. Thus the Masculines *dog*, *horse*, *stag*, and the Feminines *duck*, *cow*, *bee*, are used with reference to the animal generally.

(2) There are a few Feminine Nouns without a corresponding Masculine: *e.g.* jenny-wren, dowager, siren; and one Masculine without a Feminine: jackdaw.

68. NUMBER—To distinguish between one object and many objects, a Noun or Pronoun is changed in certain ways. The **form** assumed by the word to denote this quality is termed its **Number**. There are two Numbers in English: **Singular**, referring to one object, and **Plural**, referring to more than one.

Examples: Singular—dog, man, ox, crisis.

Plural—dogs, men, oxen, crises.

69. MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL—There are four general methods by which the Plurals of Nouns are formed:—

(1) **By adding -s** to the Singular; this is by far the most common. Examples: dog, dogs; boy, boys; custom, customs.

Exceptional Rules.

(a) If the Noun ends in a hissing sound -es is added to the Singular. Examples: gas, gases; ash, ashes; church churches.

(b) If the Noun ends in -y preceded by a consonant, -y is first changed to -i and then -es added. Examples: fly, flies; lady, ladies.

But if the -y is preceded by a vowel, the word follows the general rule. Examples: monkey, monkeys; toy, toys.

[Note the plurals soliloquies and colloquies; *u* is here a consonant.]

(c) If the Noun ends in -f (or -fe), the -f is sometimes changed to -v and then -es (or -s) added. Examples: thief, thieves; loaf, loaves; knife, knives.

But the -f often remains: *e.g.* serfs, roofs, chiefs, cliffs, gulfs.

(d) If the Noun ends in -o preceded by a consonant, -es is sometimes added. Examples: echo, echoes; potato, potatoes; hero, heroes.

But if the -o is preceded by a vowel, and frequently when preceded by a consonant, the general rule is followed. Examples: portfolios, cuckoos; also grottos, pianos.

[We have calicos and calicoes, and a few others similarly.]

(2) **By Umlaut** (change of vowel). Examples: man, men; foot, feet; mouse, mice; goose, geese; tooth, teeth.

(3) **Without change**—the same word being used for Singular and Plural. Examples: sheep, deer, grouse, swine.

(4) **Foreign Words** frequently retain their plurals. Examples:

phenomenon, phenomena; crisis, crises; radius, radii; datum, data; monsieur, messieurs; madame, mesdames.

NOTE.—We may also notice that a fifth method of forming the Plural, which used to be very common—by adding -en to the Singular—has now almost disappeared. Examples still existing are: ox, oxen; cow, kine (umlaut as well).

The Plurals of letters of the Alphabet and of figures are formed by adding 's; e.g. Dot your i's; mind your p's and q's; there are three 5's in that question.

70. TWO PLURALS—Several Nouns form two Plurals, one of which is usually according to Rule 1. These are:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
brother	brothers and brethren
cherub	cherubs „ cherubim
cloth	cloths „ clothes
die	dies „ dice
fish	fishes „ fish
formula	formulas „ formulae
genius	geniuses „ genii
index	indexes „ indices
pea	peas „ pease
penny	pennies „ pence
seraph	seraphs „ seraphim
staff	stuffs „ staves

The meaning of the two forms of the Plural is, however, in general different. For instance, when we speak of *six pennies* we are thinking of six individual coins; whereas *sixpence* simply implies that sum of money—it may be one sixpence or two three-penny pieces, or six pennies. Similarly with the rest.

71. Compound Nouns usually pluralise their most important element.

Examples:

Singular: commander-in-chief, son-in-law, man-of-war.

Plural: commanders-in-chief, sons-in-law, men-of-war.

But some few pluralise both elements: e.g. manservant, men-servants; knight-templar, knights-templars.

72. Some Nouns have one meaning in the Singular and another in the Plural.

Examples: force (=power)
copper (=metal)

forces (=army)
coppers (=bronze coins)

Some have a double meaning in the Singular.

Examples : abuse	(= misuse)	abuses (= wrong uses)
	(= bad language)	
wood	(= timber)	
	(= forest)	woods (= forests)

Similarly, some have a double meaning in the Plural.

Examples : pain	(= suffering)	pains (= sufferings)
		(= trouble)
effect	(= result)	effects (= results)
		(= goods)

73. NO PLURAL—Certain Nouns can, under ordinary circumstances, have **no Plural**. These include:—

(1) Proper Nouns, since they are the names of certain individuals, and therefore cannot be applied to more than one.

(2) Abstract Nouns. Thus *happiness* is a conception of the mind; and though there may be various kinds or degrees of happiness, those cannot properly be spoken of as *happinesses*.

(3) Nouns of Material. Thus *gold* is the name of a substance; however much of it there was, it would be impossible to speak of *golds*.

It must be carefully noted, however, that when such Proper, Abstract, or Material Nouns are used as Common Nouns they may be pluralised in the ordinary manner. Thus we may say:—

Many *Cæsars* (= men of that name) ruled the empire.

Our *sins* (= acts of sinful nature) are forgiven.

I do not like any of these *cloths* (= kinds of cloth).

74. NO SINGULAR — Similarly, certain Nouns have **no Singular**. These include Nouns of Multitude, which are by nature Plural, and such as the following: amends, archives, tongs, entrails, precincts, thanks. Thus we say:—

My *thanks* are due to you.

But some few Nouns, whilst **Plural in form** are yet **Singular in meaning and use**. Such are: alms, eaves, tidings, news, mathematics, measles. Thus we say:—

This news is good.

Mathematics is a useful study.

75. CASE is that **form** or **use** of the Noun or Pronoun which shows its relation to some other word of the sentence.

In most languages Case is shown by **Inflection** or change of ending of the Noun or Pronoun ; in English this is true only to a limited extent, for Case is also indicated in other ways.

There are three Cases in English: the **Nominative**, the **Objective**, and the **Possessive**.

76. NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE—The Subject of a Verb (§ 45) is said to be in the **Nominative Case**. *E.g.* in the sentence: *The boy laughed*, the word *boy* is the Subject of *laughed* and is in the Nominative Case.

The Object of a Verb (§ 50) is said to be in the **Objective Case**. *E.g.* in the sentence: *They hit the boy*, the word *boy* is the Object of *hit* and is in the Objective Case.

It should be noted that the word *boy* remains of exactly the same *form*, whether it is in the Nominative or Objective Case. There is for instance the greatest possible difference in the meaning of:—

The man kicked the horse,

and, *The horse kicked the man.*

Yet the words are exactly the same ; it is only the position of the Nouns which is different, or—to put it into other words—their **use** is different.

The Nominative and Objective of all **Nouns** are identical in form ; those of certain Pronouns, however, show a difference (§ 119, etc.).

77. OTHER USES OF THE NOMINATIVE — Besides being the subject of the Verb, the Nominative is also employed:—

(1) In addressing a person or a thing personified. It is then called the **Nominative of Address**. The usage is known in many languages as the *Vocative Case*.

Examples: *James*, come here.

Fate, thou hast played me a sorry trick.

O *Cassius*, you are yoked with a lamb.

(2) As **Complement to a Verb**.

Examples: 'This is the *heir*.

He was elected *consul*.

NOTE.—It is possible for the Complement to be in the Objective Case, as in the sentence: I know him to be *king*, where *king* is an Objective complement, because it refers to *him* which is Objective.

(3) In **Absolute** constructions. When a Noun or Pronoun used with a Participle forms an Adverbial Phrase independent of the rest of the sentence, the Noun or Pronoun is in the Nominative Case, and the construction is called the **Nominative Absolute**.

Examples: *The rain having ceased*, you may go out.

The Gauls having been subdued, Cæsar returned to Rome.

NOTE.—This construction was in Latin the Ablative Absolute, in Greek the Genitive Absolute, and in Old English the Dative Absolute.

That the Case in Modern English is Nominative, and not Objective or Dative, is evident if a Pronoun is substituted for the Noun; thus example 2 would be: "*They* (nom.) having been subdued," and not: "*Them* (obj. or dat.) having been subdued."

(4) In **Apposition**. When a Noun (or its equivalent) follows another to explain it further—after the manner of an Adjective—it is said to be in **Apposition** to the first Noun, and its Case is the same; e.g. Boadicea, *Queen of the Iceni*, poisoned herself.

78. OTHER USES OF THE OBJECTIVE—Besides being the object (of various kinds, see § 88) of a Verb, the Objective Case is also employed:—

(1) After a **Preposition**, which is said to govern the Noun in the Objective Case.

Examples: He spoke *to* the man.

The book is *on* the table.

(2) As Objective Complement [see § 77 (2), note].

(3) In **Apposition**. Example: They saw George, *King of Greece*.

(4) As **Adverbial Objective**—a Noun used as an Adverb.

Examples: He went *home*.

They stayed *three weeks*.

79. THE POSSESSIVE CASE—This is the only case of a Noun formed by Inflection. A Noun in the *Possessive Case* usually denotes the possessor of something mentioned later. Thus in the

sentence : *John's* hat is here, *John* is the possessor of *hat* which follows ; so with *the men's books*, *the animals' houses*.

80. MODE OF FORMING THE POSSESSIVE CASE—

General Rule—The Possessive is formed from the Nominative by adding 's.

Examples : The *man's* book, the *king's* crown, the *men's* hats, the *children's* toys.

NOTES.—(1) The apostrophe shows the omission of an original *e* in the singulars, the early forms of which were *mannes*, *kinges*, etc.

The Plural Possessives are formed by analogy with the Singular.

(2) Compound Nouns take the 's at the end of the last element, *e.g.* the son-in-law's property.

Exceptional Rule—omission of -s.

- (1) If the Plural ends in -s (as it usually does) an apostrophe only is added, the second -s being omitted for the sake of euphony (*i.e.* pleasant sound).

Examples : the boys' hats, the dogs' tails, the warriors' spoils. But note that plurals ending otherwise follow the general rule : *e.g.* men's, children's.

- (2) If the Nominative Singular ends in -s or in the sound of -s, and is of more than one syllable, the second -s is frequently omitted for the same reason.

Examples : *Moses' laws*, for *conscience' sake*.

Monosyllables usually take the -s as well as the apostrophe ; *e.g.* an *ass's* burden, *S. James's* church ; and many words of more than one syllable often do likewise, *e.g.* *Thomas's* money. A certain amount of license is permitted in such cases ; the student must be guided by the *sound* of the combination.

81. OTHER USES OF THE POSSESSIVE — Besides denoting the possessor of something, the Possessive Case is also employed :—

(1) **Subjectively.** In the phrase "The general's departure," the general does not *own* the departure. The relation of the words is similar to that of a Subject "general" to a Predicate "departed." Hence this is called the **Subjective Use** of the Possessive. Other examples are : *The Minister's resignation*, *the Poles' rebellion*.

(2) **Objectively.** Similarly, in the sentence : "The duke's murderers have been caught," the word "duke" bears an

Objective relation to "murderers." This use of the Possessive is rather uncommon.

(3) **Adjectivally.** *All Possessive Cases* are of the nature of an Adjective, for they further describe a Noun; but more especially is this the fact when a Noun denoting an *inanimate* object is put in the Possessive. Thus, "*England's* soldiers" is equivalent to "*English* soldiers," "*the moon's* rays," to "*lunar* rays," no idea of possession by an inanimate object being possible.

NOTE.—It is only in certain phrases that such a Possessive Case can be used: *e.g.* a day's march, the world's glory, a month's journey, duty's call, virtue's reward.

82. SUBSTITUTE FOR THE POSSESSIVE—Except in certain phrases [§ 81 (3)] it is incorrect to use the Possessive Case with reference to inanimate objects. Thus we should not say: *The book's pages* or *the shop's doors*.

For the Possessive, **of** with the **Objective Case** must be substituted: *e.g.* the pages *of the book*, the doors *of the shop*. This substitution may also be used when the possessor is animate: *e.g.* The murderers *of the duke*, the departure *of the general*, the laws *of Moses*.

NOTES.—(1) In "*The city of Bath*," the preposition *of* is redundant and simply implies *apposition*. The phrase is equivalent to "*the city, Bath*"; just as we say "*the river Thames*."

(2) In "*A friend of John's*" we have an example of Double Possessive. The phrase may be considered as equivalent to "*A friend of John's friends*" or "*One of John's friends*."

(3) But this explanation will not hold good for "*That face of my father's*." This cannot be paraphrased as "*One of my father's faces*"; but simply means "*my father's face*." The *'s* is here redundant, like the "*of*" in (1). The same explanation may possibly apply to "*a friend of John's*."

(4) Note the difference in meaning between "*A picture of King Edward*" (= a portrait of . . .) and a "*A picture of King Edward's*" (= a picture belonging to . . .).

83. THE POSSESSIVE IN APPOSITION—When two Possessives are in apposition, the first drops the sign of the possessive: *e.g.* "*our friend the doctor's* house." The words "*our friend the doctor*" are, in fact, treated just like a Compound Noun (§ 80, note 2).

84. IS THERE A DATIVE CASE IN ENGLISH?—In most languages there is a Case of the Noun or Pronoun signifying **to** or **for** the object. We certainly use Nouns and Pronouns in this way, *e.g.*:—

I gave *John* a book.

Will you send *him* a present?

where “John” means “to John” and “him” means “to him.” These words are called Indirect Objects (see § 88), but might well be considered as **Dative Cases**. The Dative is always (both in Nouns and Pronouns) of the same **form** as the Objective; that is, however, no reason for its exclusion, for, as has been seen, the Nominative and Objective of *Nouns* are of the same form.

The Dative is often replaced by **to** with the **Objective**, *e.g.* I gave the book *to John*; will you send a present *to him*?

NOTE.—We have also the use of the Dative signifying *for*: *e.g.*—

Fetch *me* that book at once!

This use is even more common in poetry *e.g.*:—

Heat *me* these irons hot.

Challenge *me* the count's youth. ✕

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V.

1. Classify Nouns, and explain your classification.
2. What is meant by Gender? State the chief rules for forming the Feminine in English, with examples.
3. Give instances of the conversion of abstract nouns into concrete, proper into common, common into proper, and try to explain why each of these conversions should occur.
4. Give the Feminine of: lord, hunter, hero, prior, king, patron, horse, wolf.
5. What is meant by the Case of a Noun? What cases are there in English, and how would you distinguish them?
6. Write down the Possessive Case, both Singular and Plural, of: boy, James, child, lane, lady.
7. What are the various ways of forming the Plurals of Nouns in English? Write down the plural of: maidservant, woman-servant, looker-on, lock-out, knight-errant, Miss Smith, cast-away, camel-driver, passer-by.
8. Pick out the Nouns in the following passages, and state the class to which they belong:—
 - (a) Frank did not accompany his friends on their journey through Italy.
 - (b) Men's thoughts at that time were turned to freedom and liberty.

- (c) The girls wish to stay at their friend's house the whole day.
 (d) These two Romans were created Consuls by the wish of the people.

(e) Speech is silver ; silence is gold.

9. State the Number, Gender, and Case of the Nouns in question 8.

10. Mention three examples of each of the following :—

- i. Nouns forming their Plural by vowel-change.
- ii. Compound Nouns inflecting both parts in the Plural.
- iii. Nouns which though really Plural are used as Singulars.
- iv. Nouns which have the same form for both Singular and Plural.
- v. Nouns which have different meanings in the Singular and Plural.

vi. Nouns which have two forms for the Plural with different meanings. (State the forms and their meanings.)

11. Give (i) the Masculine of *nun, goose, witch, madam, belle* ; (ii) the Plural of *scarf, piano, Mr, series, Lord Justice* ; (iii) the Possessive Case of *we, brother-in-law, horses, Messrs Norman, Slade & Pooley, the Speaker of the House of Commons*.

12. What Parts of Speech can stand in apposition, and to what parts can they so stand ? Explain this term. What words are in apposition in the following sentences ? Name the Case of each, and say how it is determined. In what way is the instance in (iii) exceptional ?

(i) " But why before us Protestants produce
 An Indian mystic or a French recluse ? "

(ii) " The daughter of a hundred Earls,
 You are not one to be desired."

(iii) " While Alfred's name, the father of his age,
 And the Sixth Edward's grace the historic page."

13. Write in the Possessive (not in the Genitive expressed by *of*) adding an appropriate Noun in each instance :—*horses, which, son-in-law, we both, somebody else, some of them, a quarter of an hour or ten minutes, Jacob and Esau* ; and in the Plural, *motto, Mr Bates, a man, passer-by, soliloquy, cloth*.

14. Explain and illustrate the terms : Apposition, Nominative Absolute, Subjective Possessive, Umlaut, Dative.

CHAPTER VI

VERBS

85. **A** VERB is a word which says something concerning a person or thing. This "saying" may be in the form of (1) An Assertion, (2) A Question, (3) A Command, (4) A Wish, concerning the person or thing (§ 23).

86. CLASSIFICATION—Verbs may be divided :—

- (1) According to their **Use**, into what are generally called **Kinds**.
- (2) According to **Changes of Form** for their Principal Parts into **Conjugations** (§ 110).

87. KINDS—In accordance with §§ 49-51, we shall distinguish three kinds of Verbs :—

- (1) **Intransitive**: those which are complete in themselves, *e.g.* he *smiled*.
- (2) **Transitive**: those which require an Object to complete their sense, *e.g.* he *hit* the man.
- (3) **Incomplete**: those which require some word not an Object to complete their sense, *e.g.* he *became* king, he *will* go.

88. VERBS AND THEIR OBJECTS—A Verb may have various kinds of Objects :

(1) The ordinary or **Direct Object**: *e.g.* He saw *the man*. Of the same nature also is the **Reflexive Object**: *e.g.* They washed *themselves*.

(2) The **Double Object**. Some Verbs take two objects ; these may consist of :—

(a) **A Direct and an Indirect Object**.

Examples :

We gave *the man* (indirect) *money* (direct).

The master taught *him* (indirect) *Latin* (direct).

She wrought *her people* (indirect) *lasting good* (direct).

It should be observed that the Indirect Object always **precedes** the Direct Object.

NOTE 1.—The so-called Indirect Object is, as we have seen, really the Dative Case (§ 84).

NOTE 2.—When such sentences are rendered in the Passive Voice (§ 92) one of the objects frequently remains. It is then called the Retained Object.

Examples: He was taught *Latin* (direct).

They were asked *questions* (direct).

Money was given *the man* (indirect).

The Retained *Indirect* Object is however awkward, and should be avoided by the use of a Preposition with the Objective Case; it would be better thus to say: Money was given *to the man*.

(b) Two Direct Objects.

Examples: They created *the man consul*.

I dub *thee knight*.

Since the majority of Verbs taking this construction are Verbs of *making*, they are often called **Factitive Verbs**, and the Object which belongs to the sense of the Verb the **Factitive Object** [Lat. *facere* = to make]. Thus in the above examples *consul*, *knight* may be called Factitive Objects.

NOTE.—When such sentences are rendered in the Passive Voice, the Factitive Object becomes a **Complement** (*not* a Retained Object) and is in the Nominative Case, *e.g.*

The man was created *consul* (Nom.).

(3) **The Cognate Object**—Certain Verbs which are ordinarily *Intransitive*, may take an object having a meaning closely connected with their own meaning. Such an Object is termed a **Cognate Object** [Lat. *cognatus* = related to].

Examples: He ran *a race*.

Thy old men shall dream *dreams*.

Pompey's statue, which all the while ran *blood*.

(4) **The Adverbial Object**—Many *Intransitive* Verbs are followed by words which, at first sight, appear to be an object denoting time, space, weight, etc.

Examples: They walked *three miles* (distance).

The meat weighs *ten pounds* (weight).

He has lived *many years* (time).

Strictly speaking, these words are simply Adverbial Phrases and not Objects at all; and in Analysis they should accordingly be classified as **Extensions** of the Predicate.

NOTE.—The Factitive, Indirect, Cognate and Adverbial Objects may be regarded as forming a series of links between the ordinary Object and the ordinary Extension of the Predicate. The Factitive Object differs little from the ordinary Object, and the Adverbial Object little from the ordinary Extension.

89. TRANSITIVE VERBS USED INTRANSITIVELY and vice versa—Since the classification of Verbs depends upon their *use*, it will be impossible to classify a Verb as Transitive, Intransitive or Incomplete, unless the sentence in which it occurs is known. Many Verbs which are ordinarily Transitive are used Intransitively; and conversely. Frequently this change in *use* is accompanied by some change in *meaning*.

(1) **Transitive used Intransitively**—This occurs:

(a) When the verb is used in a **General** sense.

Examples: *Transitive.*

Intransitive.

He *teaches* the boys Latin.

He *teaches* for a living.

He *hears* your words.

He *hears* well.

He did not *pay* his debts.

The exhibition did not *pay*.

(b) When the Verb is used in a **Reflexive** sense.

Examples: *Transitive.*

Intransitive.

We *move* the box.

The earth *moves* (= moves itself).

They *passed* the examination.

They *passed* on.

We *keep* the meat in a safe.

The meat *keeps* well.

(2) **Intransitive used Transitively**—When this occurs the Transitive acquires a **Causative** sense, *i.e.*, contains the idea of *causing* something to happen.

Examples: *Intransitive.*

Transitive.

He *stood* on the bridge.

He *stood* the bottle on the table
(= caused the bottle to stand).

The water *boils*.

He *boils* the water.

The boiler *burst*.

They *burst* their bonds.

NOTE.—Sometimes a **Causative** Verb exists which is different in form from the Intransitive; the difference usually consists in a change of vowel.

Examples: He *sat* down.

He *set* the chair down.

The trees are *falling*.

They are *felling* the trees.

He *ris*es early.

He *rais*es his hat.

90. INCOMPLETE VERBS—Under this heading three classes of Verbs may be included:—

(1) **Copulative**, which serve as a connection between the Subject and Complement (§ 51).

Examples: The boy *was* happy.

He *became* a doctor.

They *seem* pleased at the result.

(2) **Auxiliary**, which help to form the Voices, Moods, and Tenses of other Verbs, at the same time losing or modifying their meaning. They are six in number: *be, have, shall, will, do, may*. All these Verbs are capable of being used otherwise than as auxiliaries; and as they are very common and therefore very important, we shall, in § 117, exemplify their various uses.

(3) **Semi-Auxiliary**, which closely resemble auxiliaries in the method of their use with other Verbs, but which do not actually help to form Voices, Moods, or Tenses. They are: *must, can, ought, dare, need*. The use of these Verbs, too, will be discussed later.

91. CONJUGATION—Verbs are changed in form or use to mark differences in **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person**. The statement of these various parts of a Verb is termed its **Conjugation**. Before proceeding further, it will be convenient to exhibit the Conjugation of a typical Verb, so that, in what follows the student may refer to it when necessary.

Conjugation of "Drive"

I. ACTIVE VOICE

(1) *Indicative Mood*

Tense		Singular			Plural		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Simple	Present	drive,	drivest,	drives,	drive.		
	(continuous)	am driving,	art driving,	is driving,	are driving.		
	Past	drove,	drovest,	drove,	drove.		
Complete	(continuous)	was driving,	wast driving,	was driving,	were driving.		
	Future	shall drive,	wilt drive,	will drive,	shall drive, will drive, will drive.		
	(continuous)	shall be driving,	etc.		shall be driving, etc.		
	Perfect	have driven,	hast driven,	has driven,	have driven.		
	(continuous)	have been driving,	etc.		have been driving.		
	Pluperfect	had driven,	hadst driven,	had driven,	had driven.		
	(continuous)	had been driving,	etc.		had been driving.		
	Future Perfect	shall have driven,	etc.		shall have driven, etc.		
	(continuous)	shall have been driving,	etc.		shall have been driving, etc.		

(2) Imperative Mood

Present only	(2 only) drive	(2 only) drive
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(3) Subjunctive Mood

Tense	Singular			Plural		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Complete { Simple { (continuous) Past (continuous) Perfect (continuous) Pluperfect (continuous)	<div>drive,</div> <div>be driving,</div> <div>drove,</div> <div>were driving, wert driving, were driving,</div> <div>have driven,</div> <div>have been driving,</div> <div>had driven,</div> <div>had been driving,</div>			<div>drive.</div> <div>be driving.</div> <div>drove.</div> <div>were driving.</div> <div>have driven.</div> <div>have been driving.</div> <div>had driven.</div> <div>had been driving.</div>		

(4) Infinitive Mood

Present.	to drive.
(continuous)	to be driving.
Perfect.	to have driven.
(continuous)	to have been driving.
Present Part.	driving.
Perfect Part.	having driven.
Gerund.	driving.

II. PASSIVE VOICE

[No continuous forms except where mentioned]

(1) Indicative Mood

Present.	am driven, etc. (continuations of <i>am</i> as in Active).
(continuous)	am being driven, etc.
Past	was driven, etc.
(continuous)	was being driven, etc.
Future.	shall be driven, etc.
Perfect.	have been driven, etc.
Pluperfect.	had been driven, etc.
Future Perfect.	shall have been driven, etc.

(2) Imperative Mood

Present.	be driven.
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(3) Subjunctive Mood

Present.	be driven.
Past.	were driven, etc. (continuous) were being driven.
Perfect.	have been driven.
Pluperfect.	had been driven.

	(4) <i>Infinitive Mood</i>
Present.	to be driven.
Perfect.	to have been driven.
Pres. Part.	being driven.
Past Part.	driven.
Perfect Part.	having been driven.

NOTE.—In order not to complicate the above scheme unduly, the forms for the Mixed Subjunctive (with *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would*) have been omitted.

92. **VOICE** is that form of the verb which shows whether the person or thing denoted by the Subject *does* or *suffers* the action. In the former case the Voice of the Verb is said to be **Active**; in the latter **Passive**.

For example, in the sentence: "The man *struck* the table" (Active), the man is represented as *doing* something; but in: "He *is struck*" (Passive), he *suffers* something.

The **Passive Voice** is formed by the addition of the **Past Participle** (§ 102) to various parts of the Auxiliary *to be*.

93. Only **Transitive Verbs** can, as a rule, have a Passive Voice. It would be impossible, for example, to say "I am walked" or "he is smiled"—the Verbs *walk*, *smile*, being Intransitive Verbs.

In fact, it will be found that when any Active Construction is rendered in the Passive, the Object of the Active Verb becomes the Subject of the Passive Verb.

Thus: "The boy hit *the dog*" (Act.), is equivalent to:

The dog was hit by the boy (Pass.).

Nevertheless, certain Verbs which are really Intransitive, but which can have an Object of any sort, such as a Cognate or Adverbial Object [§ 88 (3), (4)] may be in the Passive Voice:

e.g. (1) The armies *fought a battle* (Act. Intrans. with Cognate Obj.) = *A battle was fought* by the armies (Passive).

(2) He *walked the whole distance* (with Adverbial Obj.) =
The whole distance was walked by him (Passive).

NOTE.—A curious point arises in connection with an Intransitive Verb followed by a Preposition + a Noun in the Objective, e.g.—

I laughed at the man; they *spoke to* the boy.

Such constructions can *sometimes* be rendered in the Passive; as:—

The man was laughed *at* by me; the boy was spoken *to* by them.

These Passive constructions are very awkward, owing to the clashing

of the words "at, by" and "to, by"; they should be avoided whenever possible.

The question, however, arises in such cases, what Parts of Speech are the words *at, to*? In the Active constructions they are undoubtedly Prepositions; but in the Passive the Noun previously governed has become the Subject, and they stand alone. They may be regarded either:—

(1) As Adverbs of Manner. For a similar transformation of Preposition to Adverb, see § 157.

(2) As belonging to the Verb itself, as though joined to it by a hyphen: He was *laughed-at* by me (*laughed-at*=ridiculed).

It should be further remarked that most Intransitive Verbs, even when thus followed, cannot be so rendered in the Passive, *e.g.* to transpose "The book lies on the table" to "The table is lain on by the book" would be absurd.

94. MOOD is that form of the Verb which shows the *mode* or manner in which a thought is expressed. Mood will therefore serve to distinguish between an assertion, a wish, or a command. It does not, however, distinguish a question; that is done by changing the order of the words.

In English, there are three Moods of the Finite Verb and one of the Infinitive: the **Indicative**, **Imperative**, **Subjunctive**, and **Infinitive**.

95. THE INDICATIVE expresses an assertion, denial, or question, about something. Its name is derived from its main use—to make a definite statement. [Lat. *indicare*=to declare or state.]

Examples: I *liked* him very much (assertion).

He *is* not *coming* with us (denial).

Will he *go* to London? (question).

96. THE IMPERATIVE expresses command, prohibition, entreaty, or advice. [Lat. *imperare*=to command.]

Examples: *Go* and *do* likewise.

Fail me not! (prohibition).

Lead us not into temptation (entreaty).

Beware of the dog (advice).

NOTE.—As the Imperative Mood implies a command of some kind, it can, strictly speaking, be used only in the Second Person Singular or Plural, *i.e.* with the Subjects *thou* or *you* implied. A *substitute* is obtained for the First and Third Persons when required:—

(1) By using the Imperative of *let* with the Infinitive of the Verb: *e.g.*

Let him come to me.

(2) By using the Subjunctive: *e.g.*

Thy kingdom come.

97. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD expresses doubt of any sort; this doubt may take the form of a condition, a purpose, a supposition, or a wish.

Examples :

I will come if he *command* me (condition).

Let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he *fall* (purpose).

Were he here, he would say the same (supposition).

God *save* King Harry ! unkinged Richard says (wish).

The above are examples of the original or **Pure Subjunctive** ; of these the last used often to be called the Optative Mood. [Lat. *optare* = to wish.]

Besides such forms, however, the Auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *should* and *would*, added to the Infinitive of a Verb, are usually considered as Subjunctives. These we shall term **Mixed Subjunctives**.

Examples :

If I *should* see him, I will tell him (condition).

I give you this advice that you *may* not *do* wrong (purpose).

He came that they *might* have life (purpose).

May he be happy ! (wish).

NOTE.—The forms with *would* and *should* serve as a *Future Subjunctive*, there being no such tense in the Pure Subjunctive.

98. USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN MODERN ENGLISH—The question is often asked: when is the Subjunctive to be used? Which, for instance, of the following sentences is correct?—

(1) If he *is* there, I shall speak to him (Indicative).

(2) If he *be* there, I shall speak to him (Subjunctive).

The answer is that *both* are correct, but that there is (or should be) a slight difference in meaning. In the first sentence there is, strictly, *no doubt* implied as to whether he is there or not; the meaning is: *Assuming that he is there* . . .

In the second sentence, *doubt* is implied; the meaning is: *If he happens to be there* (and he may or may not be there) . . .

NOTE.—The tendency of Modern English is to level such uses under the Indicative, and to employ the Mixed Subjunctive in cases where the Indicative is not equivalent. Time alone must decide whether the Pure Subjunctive shall be entirely lost to English; until the best authors of the language cease to use it, we cannot regard it as archaic. Custom at present upholds the Pure Subjunctive Singular *were*; thus we say “if it *were* not true” (Subj.) rather than “if it *was* not true . . .” (Indic.).

99. THE INFINITIVE MOOD expresses an action or state indefinitely without reference to any subject. It cannot alone form the Predicate of a Sentence, and has no person or number (§ 46). It includes—

- (1) The Infinitive proper: *to love, to have loved.*
- (2) The Participles: *loving, loved.*
- (3) The Gerund and Verbal Noun: *loving.*

100. USES OF THE INFINITIVE PROPER—The Infinitive may be used:—

- (1) As a Noun; as subject, object or complement:—

Examples: *To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine.

To serve with love and *shed* one's blood.

Approved is above;

But here below examples show

'Tis fatal *to be good*.

- (2) As an Adjective: *e.g.*

He is a man *to be admired* (=admirable).

This house is *to let* (or, *to be let*).

- (3) As an Adverb: *e.g.*

He would do anything *to save* his friend
(reason).

He came *to see* you (reason).

- (4) Absolutely—as an exclamation or a parenthesis:—

To suppose that I could commit such a
crime!

The enemy in fact—*to cut* the matter short
—was routed.

NOTE.—A similar absolute use for a parenthesis is found in the Imperative: *e.g.* A body of men—*call* them an army if you like—arrived on the scene.

He was a man, *take* him for all in all, I shall not look upon his like again.

101. THE INFINITIVE WITH AND WITHOUT TO—

Originally, only uses (2) and (3) above had the Preposition *to* prefixed, the Infinitive following being in the Dative Case and the construction being known as the Gerundial Infinitive.

Now most uses of the Infinitive can take the Preposition. In the following cases, however, the *to* is omitted:—

(1) After most Auxiliaries and Semi-Auxiliaries: *e.g.* we shall *go*, you must *come*.

(2) After *had rather*, *had better*, etc.: *e.g.* You had better *work*.

(3) After many Verbs denoting sensations, such as *hear*, *see*, *observe*; also after *make* and *let*: *e.g.* I saw him *arrive*, I heard him *say* so, I *made* him work.

(4) After *but*: *e.g.* he does nothing but *talk*.

NOTE.—On the **Divided Infinitive**. A habit has recently arisen of dividing the Infinitive from its Preposition *to* by an Adverb or Adverbial Phrase, *e.g.* I hope to *shortly* see you, we hope to *at least* pass the examination. This is considered, however, by the best authorities to be incorrect, because the Preposition and Verb are regarded as an inseparable compound: thus even when the Infinitive is a Subject to a Verb [§ 100 (1)] it still retains the Preposition. Though the above practice is growing, it should not be imitated.

102. THE PARTICIPLES are used:—

(1) With certain Auxiliaries to form various tenses: *e.g.*

He has *gone* to London (Past Part.).

He was *killed* in battle (Past Part.).

(2) As partly Adjective, partly Verb: *e.g.*

The children, *seeing* the crowd, were terrified.

Here *seeing* qualifies *children* (Adj. force) and governs *the crowd* (Verbal force).

(3) As Adjectives entirely: *e.g.*

The *admiring* crowd welcomed him.

The *vanquished* enemy retired.

103. THE GERUND AND THE VERBAL NOUN are now of the same *form* as the Present Participle, but of a totally different origin and use; they should therefore be carefully distinguished from it. Just as the Present Participle partakes

of the nature of Verb and Adjective, so the Gerund and the Verbal Noun are partly Verb, partly Noun.

The distinction between a Gerund and a Verbal Noun is that the Gerund retains the power of a Verb to *govern* an object; whereas the Verbal Noun has lost this power, and is only verbal at all by virtue of its origin. The Verbal Noun is in fact used as an ordinary Abstract Noun.

Examples: (1) *Reading* small print is bad for the eyes (Gerund).

Here *reading* governs *small print* and (with its object) forms the subject to *is*.

(2) He likes *eating* apples (Gerund).

Here *eating* governs *apples* and is itself object to *likes*.

(3) The *reading* of small print is bad (Verbal Noun).

Here *reading* does not govern; a noun like "perusal" might be substituted for it.

(4) *Walking* is good exercise (Verbal Noun).

NOTE.—(1) The Present Participle and the Gerund are often confused. Thus if we say: "Do you object to John leaving early?" the word *leaving* is a Participle agreeing with *John*. The meaning should therefore be: Do you object to *John*, who is leaving early? But this is not what is really meant: it is the *leaving* which may be objected to. Hence we ought to use a Gerund or Verbal Noun, and say: "Do you object to *John's leaving* early?" (Verbal Noun, equivalent to "departure").

NOTE.—(2) In the continuous forms of the tenses *I am driving*, *I was driving*, etc., the Verb in -ing is the Gerund and not, as might be supposed from its modern use, the Present Participle. This is shown by the old form: he is *on* (or *in*) *driving*, which survives in the dialectical "he is a driving."

NOTE.—(3) A common error, too, in the use of both Participles and Gerunds, is that of the Unrelated Participle and Gerund. Thus the sentence: "Having whipped the dog, it slunk away" is incorrect, because *having whipped* relates to no subject. We must use either: (1) The Nominative Absolute (§ 77): *He having whipped the dog*, it . . . ; or (2) The Passive Voice: The dog, *having been whipped*, slunk away.

104. TENSE is that form of the Verb which marks the *time* of the action or state expressed by the Verb, and the *completeness* of the action or state at that time.

There are three possible divisions of time: the Present, the Past, and the Future, for each of which there is a corresponding Tense of the Verb.

Examples: He *walks* now Present.

Yesterday he *walked* Past.

To-morrow he *will walk* Future.

Each of these tenses also has a corresponding **Complete tense** giving the idea of completeness at the present, past, or future.

Examples: He *has walked* a mile by

now **Perfect.**

He *had* (already) *walked* a

mile yesterday . . . **Pluperfect.**

He *will have walked* a mile

by to-morrow . . . **Future Perfect.**

Thus we have *six* tenses, three simple and three complete. Further, each of these tenses has a **Continuous** form, by use of which the action is regarded as continuing over the time or as only just finished at the time.

Examples :

I *am* still *walking* **Present Continuous.**

I *was* still *walking* when he came . . . **Past** „

I *shall* be still *walking* when you arrive . **Future** „

I *have been walking* up to now . . . **Perfect** „

I *had been walking* up to then . . . **Pluperfect** „

I *shall have been walking* for six days . **Future Perfect** „

NOTE.—(1) Only the *Indicative Mood* (Active) possesses all these tenses ; the *Subjunctive* and *Infinitive* (Active) have no *Future* tenses, and the *Imperative* has no *Past* or *Future*.

NOTE.—(2) Of the above tenses, only the *Present* and *Past* show a difference of endings ; the rest are formed by the aid of *Auxiliaries*. The *future* is formed by *shall* (1st Person) and *will* (2nd and 3rd) added to the *Infinitive* ; the *Complete* tenses by the addition of the corresponding simple tenses of *have* to the *Past Participle* ; and the *Continuous* Forms by the addition of the corresponding tenses of *be* added to the *Gerund*.

[See *Conjugation of Verb*, § 91].

105. USES OF CERTAIN TENSES—

(1) The **Present** is used :—

- (a) To show what occurs at the present time : *e.g.* it rains, he runs.
- (b) To express a state or habit : *e.g.* fire burns, they go to school.
- (c) As a *Past* for the sake of vividness. This use is known as the **Historic Present** : *e.g.* “ Suddenly the hectic passion of Richard flares ; he snatches

an axe from a servant and *deals* about his deadly blows. In another moment he *is* extinct; the graceful, futile existence *has* ceased." (DOWDEN.)

(d) As a Future for vividness: *e.g.* he *leaves* London next week; *are you going* to see him off?

(2) **The Past and Perfect** must be carefully distinguished. The **Perfect** is used:—

(a) When the event described has just finished: *e.g.* I have just written a letter to James.

(b) When, although the event has been completed some time previously, its consequences or some circumstances closely connected with it are still present.

Examples: I *have taken* off my coat (and it is still off).

I *have gained* a scholarship (which I am still holding).

King George *has reigned* several years (and is still reigning).

In accordance with the above, whenever a past date is specifically mentioned, or the occurrence is obviously regarded in our minds as unconnected with the Present, the **Past** must be used instead of the Perfect.

Examples: I *took* off my coat (but it is now on again).

His appointment *terminated* yesterday.

I *gained* a scholarship, which I gave up last year.

Victoria *reigned* 63 years (but is now dead).

NOTE on The Perfect Infinitive.—Care should be exercised in the use of the Perfect Infinitive. It is correct after Verbs like *seem*, *appear*, also after *ought*, *must* (§117), to show past time: *e.g.* He seems *to have been* popular. After Verbs of *hoping*, *wishing*, *intending* we also find the Perfect Infinitive in the best writers of our language, especially when the idea of non-fulfilment of the wish is present: *e.g.*

I hoped *to have come* yesterday but was prevented.

He intended *to have written*, but was too busy.

Strictly, the Present would be better here, since what was hoped or intended in the Past was *to come*, *to write*; but custom has sanctioned this usage. On the other hand such a sentence as: I am pleased *to have met* you, is undoubtedly wrong.

106. SEQUENCE OF TENSES—One of the commonest faults in English composition arises from the careless change of tenses (a) during the narrative, or (b) even in a single sentence; or, in other words, from a violation of the **Sequence of Tenses**.

(a) Thus in a narrative, such examples as the following occur frequently : “ He *met* the Scottish chieftain and *challenged* him to single combat. They *fight*, and after a while the Scotchman *falls*. On seeing this, the armies at once *came* into conflict, and the battle *began* in earnest.”

In the first sentence we have used the Past tenses *met* and *challenged*; this should have been continued in the second and third. Instead of this, we have suddenly changed to the Present in the second sentence and back again to the Past in the third, although in each instance the events described are past. Of course there are occasions when we can quite suitably change the tense; for instance, after employing past tenses in all the above sentences, we might follow up with : “ History *says* that over a thousand perished that day.”

(b) In a **Complex Sentence** (§ 177) the Verb in the Dependent Clause must correspond with that in the Principal Clause. Thus it is incorrect to say : He *said* that he *will* come to-morrow. Two general rules govern the Sequence of Tenses in this case :—

I. A **Present** or **Future** may be followed by *any* tense of the *Indicative* :—

e.g. I *hope* that he *has* arrived.

I *know* that he *had* come when I left.

I *fear* that he *will* be late.

But either is followed by the *Present* tense only of the *Subjunctive* (Pure or Mixed) :—

e.g. He *works* that he *may* succeed in life.

I *will* come if he *command* me.

II. A **Past** is followed by a **Past** :—

e.g. He *hoped* that it *was* true.

They *worked* that they *might* succeed.

NOTES.—(1) When the dependent clause indicates *Comparison*, either of these rules may be broken : e.g. “ He *knew* that poem better than he *knows* this one,” “ He *knows* this poem better than he *knew* that one.”

(2) When the dependent clause contains a general truth, the present may follow the past : e.g. “ He *explained* that the earth *is* round.”

107. **NUMBER** is that form of the Verb which shows whether

it refers to one or more persons or things. Each tense has two Numbers, Singular and Plural.

Thus we say: The man *drives* (Sing.); the men *drive* (Plur.).

The boy *was* speaking (Sing.); the boys *were* speaking (Plur.).

PERSON is that form of the Verb which shows whether it refers to the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. There are *three* persons, Singular and Plural, to every tense:—

(1) The **First Person**—the speaker: *I drive* (Sing.); *we drive* (Plur.).

(2) The **Second Person**—the person addressed: *thou drivest* (Sing.); *you drive* (Plur.).

(3) The **Third Person**—the person or thing spoken of: *he drives, she loves, it rains, the child walks* (Sing.); *they drive, the children walk* (Plur.).

The **Infinitive** has **no** Person or Number (§ 46); and the **Subjunctive** and **Imperative** are unchanged for either.

In the **Indicative**, Number and Person are marked:—

(a) In the Singular, by Inflection: **-est** (-st) for the 2nd Person Present or Past; **-s** for the 3rd Person Present only.

(b) In the Plural by an absence of inflection.

NOTE.—The 2nd Singular *thou* (lovest, drivest, etc.) is now obsolete; its place is filled by the 2nd Plural *you*, which, however, when so used, retains the Plural (uninflected) form of the Verb. Other words referring to *you* are in these circumstances kept Singular: thus we say *you are a man*. The use of the Plural Pronoun and Verb is often called the **Complimentary Plural**.

108. CONCORD OF VERB AND SUBJECT—A Verb is said to *agree with* its Subject in Number and Person, because it varies in those respects as its Subject varies. Thus we cannot say: *I drives* or *he love*, because the Subject and Verb do not correspond in Number and Person.

NOTE.—It should be observed that a **Noun** is generally of the **3rd Person** Singular or Plural, because the speaker or person addressed is rarely named. There is an exceptional instance in

which a Noun may be considered as 1st or 2nd Person, viz., when it is in apposition to a Pronoun :—

e.g. I, *John*, saw a vision (1st Person).

You, my *friend*, said so (2nd Person).

For special rules concerning the agreement of Verb and Subject, see § 203.

109. PRINCIPAL PARTS—The English Verb has **three** Principal Parts from which all Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons may be derived, either by inflection or by the aid of Auxiliaries. These are :—

(1) **The 1st Person Singular Pres. Indic.** : (I) love, (I) drive.

(2) **The 1st Person Singular Past Indic.** : (I) loved, (I) drove.

(3) **The Past Participle** : loved, driven.

From (1) are obtained :

(a) The rest of the Pres. Indic. by inflections.

(b) The Present Subjunctive, Imperative and Infinitive (and consequently the Future Indic.) without change.

(c) The Gerund (and consequently the Continuous Tenses) and the Present Participle, by adding -ing.

From (2) are obtained the Past Subjunctive without change, and the rest of the Past Indicative by inflections.

From (3) are obtained :

(a) All the Complete tenses by aid of Auxiliary *have*.

(b) All the Passive voice by aid of *be*.

110. CONJUGATION—Verbs are divided into classes or **Conjugations**, according to the variation in *form* of their Principal Parts.

There are two Conjugations, **Weak** and **Strong**.

Weak Verbs are such as form both their Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of the ending -ed, -d, or -t to the Present, *with or without* any other change.

Examples :	laugh	laughed	laughed
	love	loved	loved
	feel	felt	felt

Strong Verbs are such as form their Past Tense and Past Participle by change of the main vowel. Formerly all Strong Verbs also added -en for the Past Participle ; but many have now dropped this inflection,

Examples :	drive	drove	driven
	sing	sang	sung
	see	saw	seen

111. REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATIONS—The following classes of Verbs are **Weak**:—

(a) Those which both change their vowel and add -ed (-d, -t):

e.g.	tell	told	told
	seek	sought	sought

(b) Those which, ending in -d or -t in their Present (i) make no change at all, or (ii) merely *shorten the sound* of the vowel.

The majority of such Verbs originally added -ed, but this has been dropped for the sake of euphony.

Examples :	(i) hit	hit	hit
	spread	spread	spread
	(ii) lead	led	led
	feed	fed	fed

NOTES.—(1) Of course such a Verb as bind, bound, bound, which entirely changes its vowel sound, must be classed as Strong.

(2) All new Verbs formed in the language are conjugated as Weak Verbs: e.g.

electrolyse	electrolysed	electrolysed
bicycle	bicycled	bicycled

(3) Some Verbs, originally Strong, have become Weak, but retain the -en in the Past Participle. These are usually said to be of **Mixed Conjugation**. Such are:—

shew	shewed	shewn
saw	sawed	sawn

112. LIST OF STRONG VERBS—The forms in brackets are weak.

	Present	Past	Past Participle
(1)	drink	drank	drunk

So also: *begin, ring, sing, sink, spring, stink, swim, run.*

Exceptional :

	sit	sat	sat
	spit	spat	(spat)
(2)	dig	dug	dug

So also: *cling, fling, sling, slink, spin, stick, sting, strike, string, swing, wring.*

(3)	bind	bound	bound
-----	------	-------	-------

So also: *fight, find, grind, wind.*

(4)	drive	drove	driven
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So also: *arise, ride, shrive, smite, stride, strive, write; thrive (also weak: thrived, thrived).*

(5)	break	broke	broken
-----	-------	-------	--------

So also: *speak, steal, swear, tear, wear, weave.*

Exceptional :

	awake	awoke	awoke
	bear (=produce)	bore	born
	bear (=carry)	bore	borne
	forbear	forbore	forborne
	tread	trod	trodden
	get	got	got
	forget	forgot	forgotten
	beget	begot	begotten
(6)	shake	shook	shaken

So also : *forsake, take.*

(7)	blow	blew	blown
-----	------	------	-------

So also : *fly, grow, know, throw.*(8) *Miscellaneous.*

abide	abode	abode
become	became	become
behold	beheld	beheld
bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
bite	bit	bitten
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
draw	drew	drawn
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
forbid	forbad	forbidden
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	[went]	gone
hang	hung (hanged)	hung (hanged)
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held
lie	lay	lain
see	saw	seen
slay	slew	slain
stand	stood	stood
shine	shone	shone
win	won	won

113. LIST OF MIXED VERBS—

beat	beat	beaten
cleave	clave, cleft	cleft
crow	crew, crowed	crowed
do	did	done
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed
mow	mowed	mown, mowed
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed
show (or shew)	showed (shewed)	shown (shewn)
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
strew	strewed	strewn, strown

114. REMARKS ON THE STRONG AND MIXED VERBS—(1) There are many words, originally parts of Strong

or Mixed Verbs, which have now become obsolete; these are not included in the above list.

Examples are :

Past tenses : bare, clomb, drave, spake, trode.

Past Participles : lien, proven, writ, washen.

(2) Similarly, there are many Past Participles which are now used as **Adjectives** only.

Examples are : bounden, drunken, gotten, graven, shorn, shrunk, swollen.

(3) The student should distinguish : (a) *lie, lay, lain* (strong); *lie, lied, lied* (weak); *lay, laid, laid* (weak). The first is Intransitive: e.g. He *lay* down this morning; the second is Intransitive, and means "to tell an untruth"; the third is Transitive: e.g. He *laid* the book on the table.

(b) *hanged* and *hung*. The former is applied to persons only: e.g. the murderer was *hanged* to-day.

115. WEAK VERBS—The general rule is for Weak Verbs to form their Past Tense and Past Participle by adding -ed to the Present. This rule is modified as follows:—

(1) Verbs ending in -e add -d only : love, loved; share, shared.

(2) Verbs ending in a Consonant double that Consonant before adding -ed, if, and only if, (a) it is single, (b) it is preceded by a single vowel, (c) it is in the accented syllable of the word.

Thus sap, sapped; drug, drugged; regrét, regrétted.

But, according to (a) we have condemn, condemned (undoubled)

"	"	(b)	"	repeat,	repeated	"
"	"	(c)	"	séver,	sévered	"

NOTE.—Final -l doubles, despite (c): unrâvel, unrâvelled; impéril, imperilled.

(3) Some Verbs in -l, -n, add -t instead of -ed, although the form in -ed is often found as well: e.g. learn, learned and learnt. The chief of these are: burn, dwell, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil.

(4) The following shorten the vowel or the sound of the vowel and add -t (§ 111b):—

creep, crept; thus feel, kneel, keep, sleep, sweep, weep.

dēal, dēalt; thus dream, lean, mean.

Slightly irregular are: hēar, hēard; leave, left; lose, lost; flee, fled.

(5) The following ending in -t or -d only shorten the vowel or vowel sound (§ 111b):—

bleed, bled; breed, feed, meet, speed, lead.

Read has past read (sounded short).

(6) The following ending in, -ld -nd (and -rd) change -d to -t only :—
bend, bent ; build, gild, blend, lend, rend, send, spend, gird
 (but: mended, ended, defended and others).

(7) The following make no change at all (§ 111b) :—
 bet, burst, cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, let, put, rid, set, shed, shut,
 slit, split, spread, thrust.

Quit and knit have quit and knitted ; knit and knitted.

(8) The following entirely change the vowel and add -t or -d ; some show a slight irregularity also :—

buy, bought ; bring, brought ; seek, sought ; beseech, besought ;
 teach, taught ; catch, caught ; think, thought ; work,
 wrought (and worked) ; sell, sold ; tell, told.

In reality, it is the vowel of the *Present* which has been changed in these verbs : the *Past* retains the original vowel.

(9) The following are contracted :—

say, said ; pay, paid ; lay, laid ; light, lighted and lit ; make,
 made ; clothe, clothed and clad ; have, had.

116. DEFECTIVE, ANOMALOUS, AND AUXILIARY VERBS—There are certain Verbs which are so irregular that they can hardly be classed as altogether Weak or Strong. Such verbs are :—

(1) **Defective**, *i.e.* they have one or more parts wanting: *e.g.* shall, should — ; and Impersonal Verbs such as *it rains, it snows*.

or (2) **Anomalous**, *i.e.* they are made up from two or more distinct verbs: *e.g.* be, was, been ; go, went, gone.

or (3) **Irregular** in some other respect: *e.g.* the 3rd Sing. of may is not (he) *mays*, but *may*.

As the **Auxiliaries** and **Semi-Auxiliaries** are for the most part of this nature, it will be convenient to treat Anomalous, Defective, and Auxiliary Verbs together. The student should, however, clearly understand that the connection between Auxiliary and these other Verbs is an *accidental* one ; the Auxiliaries merely *happen* to be, for the most part, Defective and Anomalous ; on the other hand, there are several defective and Anomalous Verbs which are not Auxiliaries (or Semi-Auxiliaries).

117. We shall deal with each of the Auxiliaries and Semi-Auxiliaries separately, giving their various forms and uses.

I. Be.

Indicative. Present : am, art, is : are

Past : was, wast, was : were

Subjunctive. Present : be, beest or be, be : be

Past : were, wert, were : were

Imperative : be

Infinitive : to be. Participles : being, been.

Complete Tenses regular.

This Verb is: (1) Anomalous, because it is made up of three Verbs, forms of which appear in *am*, *be*, *was*.

(2) Defective, because it has no continuous forms of tenses.

USES: (1) As an Intrans. Verb (=to rest, to stand): *e.g.* He *is* in the house. The table *was* near the door.

(2) As an Intransitive Verb meaning to *exist* (rare):—

e.g. Before Abraham *was*, I *am*.

Enoch walked with God and *was* not.

(3) As a Copulative Verb: *e.g.* he *is* a doctor, they *were* happy.

(4) As an Auxiliary: (a) with the Gerund for the continuous forms of tenses: *e.g.* he *is* coming.

(b) With the Past Participle for the Passive Voice: *e.g.* he *is* struck.

The transition from (1) and (2), where *be* implies *state* or *existence*, to the Auxiliary use is simple. "He is struck" originally meant "he is *in the state of* (*having been*) *struck*," comparable with "he is *happy*."

(5) Idiomatically, with the idea of necessity: *e.g.* I *am* to go with him.

II. Have.

Indicative. Present: have, hast, has: have

Past: had, hadst, had: had

Other tenses regular; no Passive Voice.

USES: (1) As a Transitive Verb meaning to *possess*: *e.g.* I *have* a book.

(2) As an Auxiliary with the Past Participle for the Complete Tenses: *e.g.* I *have* bought the book.

Originally *have* was thus used only with Transitive Verbs, and contained the idea of possession, so that "I have bought the book" meant "I possess the book (which is) bought." But, by analogy, its use was extended to Intransitive Verbs, as in "I have walked," when the original meaning disappeared.

(3) Idiomatically, as *be*, with the idea of necessity: *e.g.* I *have* to do my work (see also § 248).

III. Do.

Indicative. Present: do, doest or dost, does (doeth and doth); do.

Other tenses regular.

USES.

(1) As a Transitive Verb meaning to *perform*: *e.g.* he *does* his duty.

(2) As an Auxiliary:

(a) For Emphasis, *e.g.* I *do* like those people; *do* let me go!

(b) With a Negative: I *do* not like thee, Doctor Fell.

(c) For a Question: *Do* you see that man?

(3) As a Substitute Verb, to avoid repetition: *e.g.* I like English better than he *does* (=likes English).

(4) Idiomatically:

(a) Meaning to *suit*: *e.g.* Will this *do*?

(b) Meaning to *feel*: *e.g.* How do you *do*?

IV. and V. Shall and Will.

Shall. Indicative. Present: shall, shalt, shall; shall.
Past: should, shouldst, should; should.

No other parts.

Will. Indicative. Present: will, wilt, will; will
Past: would, wouldst, would; would.

No other parts.

USES.

(1) *Will* is used rarely as a Transitive Verb meaning to *wish*: *e.g.* If I *will* that he tarry till I come, what is that to thee? *Would* that he were here!

(2) As Auxiliaries with the Infinitive:—

(a) For the Future Tense *shall* for 1st person, *will* for 2nd and 3rd: *e.g.*

We *shall* go to London to-morrow.

You *will* see him soon.

They *will* be sorry for it.

The probable reason for the use of *will* in the 2nd and 3rd persons affirmative is that *shall* implies compulsion, and would therefore show impoliteness if used to or with regard to another person than oneself.

(b) For the Mixed Subjunctive, *should* for all persons, *would* for 2nd and 3rd: *e.g.* If I saw him, I *should* tell him so; he *would* do it if he dared.

(3) As Semi-Auxiliaries :—

- (a) *Will* with the meaning of insistence or resolve, especially for the 1st Person: *e.g.* I *will* do it despite your advice.
- (b) *Shall* with the meaning of command or permission for the 2nd and 3rd Persons: *e.g.* (*Command*) He *shall* obey whether he likes it or not; thou *shalt* not steal. (*Permission*) You *shall* go if you wish it; they *shall* have a holiday, if they behave well.
- (c) *Would*.
 - (i) With the meaning of insistence: *e.g.* he *would* do it, though I warned him of the consequences.
 - (ii) Also with the idea of habit: he *would* come and see me every day.
- (d) *Should* with the meaning of obligation: *e.g.* he *should* do his duty.

NOTE on the use of *Shall* and *Will*.—Great care must be exercised in the use of *Shall* and *Will* for the Future, as the meaning of a sentence is often reversed by a wrong employment of these verbs. The sentence attributed to a foreigner well illustrates this: "I *will* be drowned and no one *shall* save me." In Interrogative Sentences, as the idea of insistence or command is of necessity absent, it is possible to use *shall* for 2nd Person, *e.g.* { *Shall* / *Will* } you go to see him? In Indirect statements, even more licence is permissible. We may say:—

You say that you { *shall* / *will* } be there.

He says that he { *shall* / *will* } be there.

VI. May.

Indicative. Present: may, mayst, may; may.

Past: might, mightest or mightst, might; might.

No other forms.

USES.

(1) As an Auxiliary with the Infinitive to form the Mixed Subjunctive: *e.g.* Give me the book that I *may* burn it. *May* they be happy.

(2) As a Semi-Auxiliary :—

- (a) With the idea of permission : *e.g.* *May* I do it?
 You *may* go now.
- (b) With the idea of possibility : *e.g.* The news *may* not be true.

VII. Must.

Indicative. Present : must (all persons) [originally this was a past tense].
 No other parts.

USE.—To express necessity : You *must* go. As there is no Past Tense, its place is supplied by the Perfect of the following Infinitive : *e.g.* He *must have* gone.

VIII. Ought.

Indicative. Present : ought, oughtest, ought ; ought.
 No other parts.

USE.—Ought was originally the Past Tense of *owe*, and had the meaning of being in debt. It now implies obligation : *e.g.* I *ought* to go. Like *must* it takes the Perfect Infinitive in place of a Past Tense : I *ought to have* gone.

NOTE.—*Ought* is the only Verb of its class which takes the “to” before the Infinitive. Shakespeare has : You *ought* not *walk*.

IX. Can.

Indicative. Present : can, canst, can ; can.
 Past : could, couldst, could ; could.
 No other parts.

USE.—Can originally signified knowledge ; now it generally means ability of any sort to do a thing : *e.g.* I *can* dance ; *can* you come to see me to-morrow ?

The combination of *can* with the Infinitive was sometimes called the Potential Mood of a Verb.

X. Dare.

Indicative. Present : dare, darest, dares and dare ; dare.
 Past : dared, daredst, dared ; dared [and durst (throughout) : obsolete].

USES.

(1) As a Transitive Verb meaning "to challenge": *e.g.* I *dared* him to do it.

(2) As a Semi-Auxiliary indicating possibility. In this case the 3rd Sing. is *dare* and the "to" is omitted before the following Infinitive: *e.g.* I *dare* say; he *dare* not do it.

XI. Need is regular except in the 3rd Singular, when it is used as a Semi-Auxiliary: *e.g.* He *need* not do it unless he likes. If used as a Transitive Verb, the 3rd Person takes the -s: *e.g.* He *needs* good food.

118. OBSOLETE VERBS—The following Defective Verbs are now obsolete in most parts.

Wit—(1) Originally a Transitive Verb (=know): *e.g.* *Wist* ye not that I, etc. Past Tense *wot*: *e.g.* God *wot*. Both these parts are now obsolete.

(2) Now used only in the Infinitive *to wit* (=namely).

Quoth is used in poetry only in the 1st and 3rd Persons Past Tense and with Inversion: *e.g.*

Quoth the raven: "Nevermore."

As for myself, *quoth* he.

Wont is used only in the Past Participle, meaning *accustomed*: *e.g.* He was *wont* to stay there.

Worth originally meant "to become." It is now obsolete and preserved only in the 3rd Singular—

Woe *worth* the day!

Hight is now obsolete and is found in poetry only in the 3rd Singular, meaning "is named": *e.g.*

He *hight* Alisaundre.

Methinks was originally impersonal (=it seems to me). So also we find the now obsolete forms—*meseems*, *melisteth* (=it pleases me).

NOTE.—The phrase "if you please" was originally impersonal (=if it please you). Now *please* is practically regarded as 2nd Person Plural. "Thank you" is *not* analogous: it is elliptical for "I thank you."

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI.

1. Write eight sentences giving four examples of the use of the same Verb transitively and intransitively. Rewrite the four sentences containing Transitive Verbs with change of voice from Active to Passive. (M)

2. Explain what is meant by *tense* and *mood* of Verbs. Explain the uses of the Subjunctive Mood in modern English. (M)

3. Explain the different uses of the Verbal form which terminates in -ing, giving examples of each.

4. Why are Verbs in the Infinitive Mood sometimes treated as Substantives? Can you give any examples of Infinitives which ought not to be so designated? Explain your reasons.

5. Show that the forms, *I change, I am changing, I have changed*, are all used with regard to present time, but in different ways. Give the corresponding forms for the Present Passive, and for the Past and Future Tenses, Active, in the Indicative Mood.

6. Explain exactly the use of the various Tenses of the Active Voice in English (both the simple Tenses and those formed with the auxiliaries have, be). Is it correct to say: "Spain has founded a mighty empire"? (M)

7. Make a list of some half a dozen Weak Verbs that have vowel-change in the Past Tense; also half a dozen that have no change there; also half a dozen that do change but not in the way of addition. (M)

8. Explain the terms *Strong* and *Weak* as applied to Verbs; also the term *conjugation*. To which conjugation do you assign *teach, fight, work, do, fly, flow, flee, tell, till, toll*, and why? (M)

9. State clearly the rules for the use of *shall* and *will*.

10. Give a concise account of the Auxiliary Verbs in English.

11. Explain the terms Anomalous and Defective. Name all the Verbs of this nature and write notes on their peculiarities.

12. Show from still familiar forms that *melt, show, shave, swell, grave* were once of the Strong conjugation; and write down the Past Participles of *shoe, light, work, knit, speed*. (M)

13. Examine carefully the uses of the Objective Case in the following:—

(a) He did me great service.

(b) I was promised a book.

(c) They ran all the way.

(d) Did you tell him the news?

(e) They wept bitter tears.

(f) It measured three feet by six.

14. Give in columns the Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person of the Verbs in the following sentences:—

(a) He says that his friends will come this evening.

(b) If you had been there, you would have acted as I did.

(c) Go away and do not let me see you again!

(d) Whilst he was writing, a shot struck him.

(e) I was told that, if I did not improve, I should be sent away.

15. Write notes on the use or meaning of the words italicised in the following sentences :—

- (a) I *did go* to London after all.
- (b) You *do* not work as I *do*.
- (c) He *was talked about* for this.
- (d) *Crossing* the road, he was knocked down by a *passing* cab.
- (e) *Travelling* is a pleasant mode of *improving* one's education.

(f) *Please* give him my kind regards.

16. Explain and illustrate the terms : Causative Verbs, Mixed Verbs, Gerund, Complement, Historic Present, Divided Infinitive.

17. Write sentences illustrating the different uses of :—

- (i) I come—I am coming.
- (ii) I came—I have come.
- (iii) Will he come?—Shall he come?

Explain fully, in the case of each pair, why the forms cannot be used interchangeably. Why is it incorrect to say : " Mr Gladstone has been Prime Minister," but correct to say : " Lord Rosebery has been Prime Minister " ? (M)

18. Give (i) the 3rd Person Singular Preterite Indicative of *swim*, *put*, *deal*, *read*, *stride* ; (ii) the Past Participle of *bear* (to carry), *become*, *show*, *lend*, *thrust* ; (iii) the 2nd Person Singular Present Indicative of *shall*, *have*, *may*, *ought*, *must* ; (iv) all the different forms in use of the Verb *do*.

19. Write out :—

- (1) The 3rd Plural Past Indicative of *catch*.
- (2) The 1st Plural Perfect Indicative of *meet*.
- (3) The 2nd Singular Future Perfect Indicative of *make*.
- (4) The 3rd Singular Future Indicative of *send*.
- (5) The 3rd Singular Present Indicative Passive of *slay*.
- (6) The 2nd Plural Past Indicative Passive of *bring*.
- (7) Interrogatively, the 3rd Plural Future Indicative Active of *accept*.
- (8) Negatively, the 1st Plural Present Indicative Passive of *select*.
- (9) The Imperative Active of *choose*.
- (10) The Infinitive Mood Active of *speak*.

CHAPTER VII

PRONOUNS

119. **A** PRONOUN is a word used instead of a Noun. Besides referring to some Noun previously mentioned and thus avoiding its repetition, Pronouns may also be used :—

(1) Instead of a **Noun-Equivalent**: *e.g.* *Playing with fire* is dangerous; *it* (= playing with fire) has caused many deaths.

(2) In the place of a **Noun** **inferred** from a previous sentence: *e.g.* He became Prime Minister; *that* (= to become Prime Minister) had always been his ambition.

(3) To avoid not only the repetition, but even the **mention** of a Noun, when the person or thing referred to is obvious: *e.g.* *I* was sleeping, but *you* were awake.

Pronouns, like Nouns, have **Case**, and frequently, unlike Nouns, they have a special form for the Objective Case. They also have **Number** and **Gender**, though these are not formed in the same way as the **Number** and **Gender** of a Noun. An additional feature of some Pronouns is their **Person** (§ 107).

NOTE.—The same word is often used as both Pronoun and Adjective; we shall have occasion to refer to such words in the course of this chapter.

120. **CLASSIFICATION**—Pronouns may be divided into the following classes, according to their various uses :—

(1) **Personal** (including **Reflexive** and **Possessive** forms): *e.g.* I, he, him (Personal); yours (Possessive); myself (Reflexive).

(2) **Demonstrative**: this (Plural, these), that (Plural, those).

(3) **Relative**: who, which, what (and their compounds, whoever, etc.), that, as.

(4) **Interrogative**: who? which? what?

(5) **Indefinite**: any, each, everyone, another, etc.

121. **PERSONAL PRONOUNS** are so called because they

refer to the three Persons: 1st, the person speaking; 2nd, the person spoken to; 3rd, the person or thing spoken of (§ 107).

They have **Gender**, **Number**, and **Case**.

(1) The *Gender* is distinguished only in the 3rd Person Singular: *he* (Masc.), *she* (Fem.), *it* (Neut.). The rest are of **Common Gender**.

(2) The *Number* is indicated by the use of totally different words:—

Sing.: I, thou, he (she, it).

Plur.: we, you, they.

(3) The *Case* is formed by inflection; there is a special form for the Objective: e.g. *he* (Nom.), *him* (Obj.).

The following Scheme shows the Personal Pronouns, with all Persons, Genders, Numbers, and Cases.

	Singular					Plural		
	1st	2nd	3rd			1st	2nd	3rd
			M.	F.	N.			
Nom.	I	thou	he	she	it	we	you (ye)	they
Obj.	me	thee	him	her	it	us	you	them
Poss.	mine	thine	his	hers	its	ours	yours	theirs
	(my)	(thy)		(her)		(our)	(your)	(their)

NOTES.—(1) The 2nd Person Singular, *thou*, *thee*, *thine* has almost dropped out of use, *you*, *you*, *yours* being substituted. So also *ye*, 2nd Plural (originally the Nominative, *you* being Objective), is now obsolete.

(2) The 1st Plural is occasionally used for the 1st Singular: e.g. "We, Edward, by the grace of God, etc." An editor generally uses *we* for *I* when giving expression to his own opinions.

(3) The 3rd Person Singular Neuter *it* is often used indefinitely without reference to any particular thing and even without any special meaning: e.g.

It was William I. who conquered England (Introductory).

Who is *it*, making such a noise? (referring vaguely to a number of persons).

I think *it* my duty to inform you (referring to what follows: *to inform you*).

122. POSSESSIVES—The forms *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their* placed within brackets in the above table present a slight difficulty.

Are they **Adjectives** or **Pronouns**? Originally all these words were Pronouns like *mine*, *thine*, etc.

In the sentence, "This book is *yours*," there is no doubt that

yours is a Pronoun, because it stands not *with* but *in place of* a Noun-phrase—the book belonging to you. But in the sentence, “This is *your* book,” the word *your* stands with a Noun, and describes and limits its meaning; hence it seems to be an **Adjective** rather than a Pronoun. Moreover, the corresponding words in French, German, and Latin are Adjectives, agreeing in all respects with the Noun following.

It is urged in support of its pronominal use that *your* stands for *Smith's* or *man's*, etc.; and that as these are Nouns the word *your* fulfils the definition of a Pronoun. But, as has been already remarked, the words *Smith's*, *man's*, etc.—the Possessive Cases of Nouns—are themselves adjectival in use, though not actually Adjectives. The form *his* does duty for both Adjective and Pronoun: e.g. This is *his* book (Adj.). This book is *his* (Pron.).

123. THE REFLEXIVE AND EMPHATIC FORMS—

These are formed mainly from the Possessive Adjectives by adding the word *self* (*selves*). This word was originally an Adjective and then a Noun, as in “their proper *selves*” (Shakspeare). Thus we have *myself*, *thysself*, *herself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, and *yourselves*. It should be noticed that *himself*, *itself*, *themselves* are formed, not from the Possessive Adjectives, but from the Objective Case of the Pronoun, probably, in the first two instances, because *hissself*, *itssself* do not sound pleasant to the ear. This explanation does not, however, account for *themselves*, which may have been formed by analogy with the others.

The same form is used for both Nominative and Objective Cases.

Such Pronouns have two uses:—

- (1) For **Emphasis**, in Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun: e.g.

We *ourselves* will speak to them.

These men saw it *themselves* (in apposition to *men*).

- (2) As **Reflexives**—when their Case is Objective: e.g.

They hurt *themselves* at cricket.

124. **DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS** are so called because they *demonstrate* or point out a particular object.

Examples : *This* is my hat.

Whose hat is *that*?

He took a complete rest; and *this* saved his life.

Both the Demonstratives *this, that* (with their Plurals) can be used as Pronouns or Adjectives. Compare the sentences :—

These are his books (Pronoun).

These books are his (Adjective).

The Demonstratives *this, that* are occasionally used in the sense of *the latter, the former* (probably in imitation of the Latin *hic . . . ille*) : *e.g.* He divided the army into two parts—Europeans and natives ; *these* he sent to the rear, *those* he led to the attack.

Sometimes they are used in the sense of *some . . . some* : *e.g.* The boys did what they pleased ; *these* played, *those* worked.

NOTE 1.—**Such** is usually considered a Demonstrative Pronoun (and Adjective), though its vague meaning also gives it a claim to be classified with the Indefinite Pronouns (§ 129). Example of use as a Pronoun :—

Suffer little children to come unto me and forbid them not, for of *such* is the kingdom of heaven.

It is an *Adjective* in :—

Such men as he are never at heart's ease.

NOTE 2.—The word *so* is an Adverb used as a Demonstrative Pronoun in such phrases as : he said *so* (= *this*) ; I told you *so*.

125. RELATIVE PRONOUNS have two functions :—

(1) They **relate** or refer to some word or phrase previously mentioned. This word or phrase is known as the **Antecedent**.

(2) Like Conjunctions, they serve to **join** sentences. For this reason they are often aptly termed **Conjunctive Pronouns**.

Examples : He saw the *men* | *who* were here yesterday.

(Antecedent) | (Relative)

He said *that the earth was round*, | *which* was perfectly true.
(Antecedent) | (Relative)

The bars indicate the division of the sentences. It should be noted that the Relative forms part of the second sentence in each case ; in this respect it differs from a Conjunction, which, strictly speaking, belongs to neither sentence : *e.g.*

I hoped | that | you would come.

126. WHO has an Objective Case **whom** and a Possessive **whose**. These words are used for Singular and Plural alike.

They refer to Persons only, and are therefore of the Masculine or Feminine Gender.

Examples : The man *who* was here has gone away.

(Nom.)

The men *whom* I saw have been arrested.

(Obj.)

The boy, *whose* books I have brought, is not here.

(Poss.)

Which is used in the Nom. and Obj. Cases for animals and inanimate objects ; its Gender is therefore Neuter.

Examples : This is the book of *which* I was speaking.

(Obj.)

He saw many dogs *which* were black.

(Nom.)

Which has no Possessive Case, *of* with the Objective being used, as in the first example above ; but **whose** is sometimes used for the Possessive, especially in reference to *animals* : e.g.

This is the bird *whose* plumage I admire.

NOTES.—(1) The distinction between *who* (M. and F.) and *which* (N.) is of modern origin ; thus we find in Shakspeare :—

The first of gold, *who* this inscription bears ;

The second, silver, *which* this promise carries.

and

The mistress *which* I serve.

(2) *Which* is also used as an *Adjective* : e.g. I know *which* books you want.

That is used indiscriminately with reference to persons or things ; the same form serves for Nom. and Obj., Sing. and Plur.

Examples : Give me the man *that* is not passion's slave.

(Nom.)

You have the book *that* I was speaking of.

(Obj.)

NOTES.—(1) There is a distinction between the uses of *who*, *which*, and *that*. *Who* and *which* have two uses :—

(a) Restrictive, when the clause introduced describes the Antecedent like an Adjective (§ 188) : e.g.

This is the man *whom* you saw.

(b) Continuative, when the clause introduced continues the information already given : e.g.

I saw my father *who* was in London.

That can be applied only in the first of these cases (Restrictively). Thus we can say : " This is the man *that* you saw," thereby distinguishing some particular man from others ; but not " I saw my father

that was in London," for this would mean "that particular father of mine who was in London," which is absurd. This discrimination of *who* and *that* is of modern origin.

(2) The word *that* is also a Demonstrative Pronoun (§ 124), an Adjective (§ 124), and a Conjunction (§ 163).

What is sometimes a Compound Relative because (according to modern usage) it stands for the Demonstrative *that* and the Relative *which*; consequently it requires no antecedent. It is always of the Neuter Gender.

Example : You know *what* I mean.

What is also used

- (1) As an Adjective : He saw *what* books I had.
- (2) As an Exclamation : *What!* did Cæsar swoon?
- (3) Adverbially : *What* (= partly) with this and *what* with that I don't know where to turn.
- (4) As an Interrogative Pronoun (see below).
- (5) Indefinitely : I'll tell you *what* (= something), we'll go there at once.

Who has a similar use to (5) in older writers, *e.g.* He did nothing but frown as *who* (= anyone) should say, "If you will not have me, choose."

NOTE.—The Compounds *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whosoever*, etc., are used similarly to the simple Relatives. *Whomsoever* is also found; but not *whomever*.

As, generally an Adverb, is used as a Relative Pronoun after the Antecedents *such*, *same*: *e.g.*

Your friends are such *as* I admire.

But, originally a Conjunction, has the force of a Negative + a Relative Pronoun, just as the Latin *quin*, in such sentences as :

There is no man *but* loves him (= *who* does *not* love him).

127. CONCORD OF THE RELATIVE AND THE ANTECEDENT—Since the Relative refers to the person or thing denoted by the Antecedent, it necessarily agrees with it in **Gender, Number, and Person**. But the Relative does not agree with its Antecedent in *Case*, the Case of each being determined by the clause in which it stands: *e.g.*

The *books which* you desire are here,
(Nom.) (Obj.)

Give me the *book which* is on the table.
(Obj.) (Nom.)

The **Relative** is frequently omitted if in the Objective Case : *e.g.*
That is the man \wedge I mean.

But it must not (according to modern usage) be omitted if in the Nominative. Shakspeare wrote : "There's two or three of us \wedge have seen strange sights."

128. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are used in asking questions. They are the same words as the Relative **who**, **which**, **what**, and their compounds with *-ever* (not *that*, *as*, *but*, nor the compounds ending in *-soever*).

Examples : *What* do you say ?

Whatever (generally two words, *what ever*) made
you do it ?

Whose is this book ?

Which is used interrogatively for the purpose of discrimination of one or more *persons* or *things* from a number : *e.g.*

Which of the two do you prefer ?

Which of you broke the window ?

Both *which* and *what* are also used as Adjectives : *e.g.*

Which book will you have ?

What money have you ?

129. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS are such as indicate things in a general way. They do not point out a particular thing as do the Demonstratives, nor do they even refer to a Noun previously used. The following belong to this class—*one*, *any* (and its compounds *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*), *some* (and *someone*, *somebody*, *something*), *none* (and *nobody*, *nothing*), *other* (and *another*), *each*, *else*, *either*, *neither*, *all*, *few*, *many*, *several*, *everyone*, *both*.

Examples of use : *Many* are called, *few* are chosen.

What *else* is there ?

Either of you will do.

One is inclined to think so.

Some were born great.

Most of these words are also Adjectives : *e.g.*

All men are mortal.

Some people are always grumbling.

130. INDEFINITE DISTRIBUTIVES — Four of these Indefinite Pronouns, viz. *each, either, neither, everyone*, are used **distributively**, *i.e.* with reference to a number of things one at a time. All succeeding words in the sentence connected with them must be singular : *e.g.*

Each of the girls *has her* book.

Neither of them *knows his* (or *her*) work.

A slight difficulty arises if, as in the last sentence, the persons referred to are of different sexes; grammar strictly requires the words *his* or *her* before *work*, but custom allows the use of *his* only.

NOTE on *each other, one another*.—The words *each other*, like *either* and *neither*, are used in reference to two persons only, *one another* in reference to two or more : *e.g.*

The schoolboys were hitting *one another*.

John and Charles were hitting *each other* (or *one another*).

In these sentences *one* and *each* are Nominative Case, *other* and *another* are Objective, for the original meaning was : “The schoolboys were hitting—one was hitting another,” etc.

But in the sentence : “They were playing with *each other*,” the original construction has been lost, and both must be taken as Objective Case governed by the Preposition *with*.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII.

1. Classify Pronouns, giving examples. Write sentences illustrating the use of one Pronoun of each class.

2. Show, by means of sentences, that the same word is often used both as Pronoun and as Adjective.

3. What is meant by an Antecedent? In what way does the Antecedent agree with its Relative? Give two examples.

4. Write sentences showing the various meanings and uses of the words *one, which, each, that*, with explanations in each instance.

5. Explain the exact meaning and use of the word *what* in the following sentences :—

(a) I will tell you *what*.

(b) He was somewhat weary.

(c) *What* o'clock is it?

(d) *What* man is this?

(e) *What* with the wind, and *what* with the rain, it was not easy to get on. (M)

6. Explain the uses of the Relatives *who*, *which*, and *that*, and compare them with one another.

7. In what grammatical characteristics do Nouns and Pronouns resemble each other, and in what do they differ from each other ?

8. Assign to their various classes the Pronouns in the following sentences, adding notes of explanation where necessary :—

- (1) Many of these apples are bad : I will have none of them.
- (2) Whatever you do, keep the affair to yourself.
- (3) Those are the men that I was talking about.
- (4) All who are such as I have described, will be invited.
- (5) The boys like each other : that is a fortunate thing.
- (6) We ourselves said so, and everyone agreed.

9. Give (in columns) the Number, Gender, and Case of the Pronouns in the last question.

10. State (with reasons) which of the words italicised are Adjectives and which are Pronouns in the following :—

- (1) *This* is *my* hat ; where is *yours* ?
- (2) Men at *some* time are masters of *their* fates.
- (3) *Such* men as he be never at heart's ease.
- (4) *Which* man do you mean ? *Any* of *those* will do.
- (5) The towns *that* you mentioned are large ; but *these* are small.
- (6) Do you want *any* books ? Yes, I will have *that* one.

11. Explain the Demonstrative Pronouns in :—

- (1) The busy sylphs surround their darling care ;
These set the head, and those divide the hair.
- (2) Two principles in human nature reign :
Self-love to urge, and Reason to restrain ;
Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call,
Each works its end to move or govern all. (M)

CHAPTER VIII

ADJECTIVES

131. **A**N ADJECTIVE is a word used to describe a Noun or Pronoun, and at the same time to limit its application. Adjectives are used in two ways:—

(1) **Attributively**, when they stand with the Noun ~~they~~ qualify: *e.g.*

They saw *a mad* dog.

A great crowd collected.

Which books do you want?

(2) **Predicatively**, when a Verb stands between the Adjective and the Noun or Pronoun it qualifies: *e.g.*

The dog was *mad*.

The crowd is *great*.

They seem *tired*.

NOTE.—A few Adjectives, *e.g. desirous, conversant, awake, afraid*, cannot be used Attributively; and a few others, *e.g. every, any*, and the Possessive Adjectives cannot be used Predicatively.

132. **CLASSIFICATION** — Adjectives may be classified as follows:—

(1) **Qualitative**, showing of what nature or quality an object is, *e.g. good, happy, hard, blue, English*.

(2) **Possessive**: *my, thy, his, etc.*

(3) **Demonstrative**: *this, that, the, an (a), such*.

(4) **Relative and Interrogative**: *which, what, and compounds*.

(5) **Numeral**: *e.g. one, two, second, single*.

(6) **Indefinite**: *e.g. some, any, much, few, every*.

Since many words, as has been pointed out in the last chapter, serve both as Adjectives and Pronouns, many of the above classes are identical with those of the Pronouns, and therefore need no

further explanation. The **first class** (Qualitative) is the one that is especially proper to Adjectives, and it is to this class that the majority of Adjectives belong.

133. THE ARTICLES—The words *a*, *an*, *the* are generally called the **Articles**, and are sometimes classed as a separate Part of Speech. But as they correspond very closely in origin and use with the Demonstrative Adjectives *this*, *that*, they are placed with those words.

The is called the Definite Article, because like *this* and *that* it points out definitely one particular object or class.

A (**an**) is similarly called the Indefinite Article, because it points out one object but not any particular specimen. Logically, we ought perhaps to place this word under the Indefinite Class, but it is convenient to treat it here with the word *the*.

The use of a and an.

An is used before the vowel-sounds, before silent *h*, and before unemphatic *h* (*i.e.* where the accent of the word is not on the first syllable).

A is used before consonants, before aspirated and emphatic *h*, and before vowels which sound like consonants.

Examples :

- | | | |
|-----------|---|--|
| an | { | an ape, an image, an untruth (vowel sound). |
| | | an honourable man, an hotel (silent h). |
| | | an habitual drunkard, an hospitable man (unemphatic h). |
| a | { | a book, a dog, a feature (consonant). |
| | | a hope, a happy man, a habit (aspirated and emphatic h). |
| | | a usual occurrence, a ewe lamb, a one-sided affair
(vowels sounded like consonants y, w). |

134. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES include :—

(1) **Cardinals**—the ordinary numbers *one*, *two*, *three*, etc.

(2) **Ordinals**—showing the order or rank of an object: *first*, *second*, *third*, etc.

(3) **Multiplicatives**—in which the number of times is indicated, *e.g.* *single*, *double*, *twofold*, *treble*, *threesfold*, etc.

135. Sufficient explanation of the other classes of Adjectives

has been given under the corresponding Pronouns (Chapter vii.). A few examples may be added :—

His (Poss.) hands are *dirty* (Qual.).

Some (Indef.) men try to do *two* (Num.) things at the *same* (Indef.) time.

Which (Interrog.) men are *guilty* ? (Qual.).

Into *whatsoever* (Rel.) city ye enter, etc.

Those (Dem.) people are *my* (Poss.) friends.

136. ADJECTIVES USED AS OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH—In addition to the employment of the same word as Adjective and Pronoun, Adjectives are frequently used :—

(1) As **Nouns** : *e.g.* The *evil* that men do lives after them,
The *good* is oft interred with their bones.

(2) As **Adverbs** : *e.g.* They worked *hard*.
The moon shines *bright*.

Only a few Adjectives such as the above and *fast*, *loud* can be thus employed ; the student should therefore beware of such incorrect sentences as : he spoke *quick*, he writes *funny*, where the Adverbs quickly, funnily should be used.

We may here note that after Verbs of Incomplete Predication, the Adjective is correctly used and is not to be considered Adverbial : *e.g.*

He is *happy*.

He looks *sad*.

(3) As **Prepositions** : *e.g.* They sat *near* me.
He is very much *like* you.
This is *worth* a shilling.

137. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES—Adjectives can be changed or compared, as it is termed, in order to show the state of the object named relatively to one or more other objects.

Thus we may say : "The man is *taller* than the woman," where we compare the height of the man with that of the woman ; or "This book is the *most beautiful* of all," where we compare this book with all others named or inferred.

There are **three degrees of Comparison** :—

(a) **Positive**—which is the Adjective itself ; no relative idea is indicated, *e.g.* There is a *happy* land.

(b) **Comparative**—which indicates a higher degree of completion or perfection relative to some other object; it is only used in comparing **two** objects: *e.g.* This boy is *happier* than that one.

(c) **Superlative**—which indicates the highest degree attainable of all objects of the same nature: *e.g.* He is the *happiest* boy in the class.

NOTE.—The Comparative and Superlative Degrees are often used **absolutely**: *i.e.* without any comparison being stated; in such cases however the comparison is easily inferred: *e.g.*

He was the *healthier* for his visit to the country (*i.e.* healthier than he was previously).

They are *happiest* when they are at school (*i.e.* happiest of all times).

For the use of *the* with the Comparative, see § 150.

138. MODES OF COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES—

There are three modes in which the Comparative and Superlative Degrees of Adjectives are formed.

(1) **By inflection**: to the Positive, **-er** is added to form the Comparative, and **-est** to form the Superlative: *e.g.*

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
high	higher	highest
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
bold	bolder	boldest

Exceptional Rules.

(a) When the Adjective ends in **-e**, **-r** and **-st** only are added:—

safe	safer	safest
large	larger	largest

(b) When the Adjective ends in **-y** preceded by a consonant, **-y** is changed to **-i-** and then **-er**, **-est** are added:—

happy	happier	happiest
lovely	lovelier	loveliest

Except: shy shyer shyest

(c) Adjectives of one syllable ending in a consonant with a short vowel preceding, double that consonant before inflection:—

sad	sadder	saddest
fit	fitter	fittest

(2) Words of more than two syllables, and most words of two syllables also, form their Comparative and Superlative by prefixing **more** and **most** (these words being themselves the Comparative and Superlative of the Adverb *much*):—

magnificent	more magnificent	most magnificent
jovial	more jovial	most jovial
unsafe	more unsafe	most unsafe

(3) Irregular Comparison.

(a) A few Adjectives have different words for Positive, Comparative, and Superlative. They are :—

good	better	best
bad		
ill	worse	worst
evil		
much	more	most
many		
little	less	least

(b) A few others have a twofold Comparison, regular and irregular :—

late	{ later latter	latest last
nigh	nigher	{ nighest next
near	nearer	{ nearest oldest
old	{ older elder	eldest

(c) A few Comparative and Superlative Adjectives have no Positive Adjective, they being derived from an Adverb originally :—

(far)	farther	farthest
(forth)	further	furthest
(fore)	former	{ foremost first
(in)	inner	{ inmost innermost
(out)	{ outer utter	utmost uttermost
(beneath)	nether	nethermost
(up)	upper	{ upmost uppermost

139. NOTES ON THE IRREGULAR COMPARISONS—

(1) There is a difference in use between *later* and *latter* and between *latest* and *last*. *Later*, *latest* refer to time : e.g. "He was *later* than you" (in point of time) ; *latter*, *last* refer to order : e.g. "The *latter* had the finer voice of the two." Also *latter* is never used before *than*.

(2) There is also a difference of another kind between *older*, *oldest* and *elder*, *eldest* : (a) *Elder*, *eldest* are used of persons only, *older*, *oldest* of persons and things : e.g. "This man is the *oldest*

(or *eldest*),” but “This horse is the *oldest* in the stable.” (b) There is a further distinction between *older*, *oldest* and *elder*, *eldest* as applied to persons. For example, Prince Henry was the *eldest* son of Henry II., though he died young; but he could not be described as the *oldest*, because the others attained a greater age. (c) Further, *elder* is not used before *than*.

(3) *Near* is the original Comparative of *nigh*: it has now become a Positive and is compared regularly.

(4) The Positive Adverbs given in brackets in § 138 (c) have an Adjectival force in the compound words *outhouse*, *in-licence*, *upland*, *foreshore*. *Forth* is similarly found in the now archaic word *forthright*, and *far* survives as an Adjective in the expression “a far country.”

140. A DOUBLE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE were once admissible in English. Thus Shakspeare has:—

This was the *most unkindest* cut of all (double Sup.).

Nor that I am *more better* than Prospero (double Comp.).

Against the envy of *less happier* lands (a curious double Comp.).

The only instances of such in modern English are the words *nearer* (§ 139) and *lesser*: e.g.

The *lesser* light to rule the night.

141. SOME ADJECTIVES CANNOT BE COMPARED—It is impossible to assign any degree to Possessive, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, Numeral, or Indefinite Adjectives (except *much* and *little*). Thus an object cannot possibly be more or less *third* than another, or more or less *some* than another.

Only Qualitative Adjectives, then, admit of Comparison, and even of these, some, owing to their nature, can ordinarily have no degree. Such are *silver*, *perfect*, *circular*, *English*. It should be noticed that such Adjectives are sometimes used with *more* and *most* with a slight difference of meaning: e.g. “This figure is more *circular* than that” (*i.e.* it is more nearly a circle). Strictly, if a thing is circular, it *is* circular, and can be neither more nor less so.

142. CONCORD OF ADJECTIVES—An Adjective origin-

ally agreed with the Noun it qualified—whether attributively or predicatively—in all respects. Now, however, Adjectives show no variation for Gender, Number, or Case, with the exception of the Demonstratives *this* and *that*, which have Plurals *these* and *those*. But Adjectives used as Nouns may take a Plural form : e.g.

Russians, Christians, interiors, valuables, aliens, neutrals.
Adjectives used attributively usually precede the Noun they qualify. Some exceptions are noted in § 215.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VIII.

1. Classify Adjectives, giving examples of each class.
2. What is meant by the Attributive and Predicative Uses of Adjectives? Write sentences illustrating your answer.
3. What forms of the Indefinite Article do you use before the words history, historical, European, usual, humble, ever? Give reasons for your answers. (M)
4. What Adjectives cannot be compared? Give examples to illustrate your answer.
5. What Adjectives are irregular in their comparison? Write notes on : utter, last, first, furthest, near.
6. Give the degrees of comparison of the following where such exist ; if any do not admit of comparison, state why : free, dry, red, principal, gay, silly, unfortunate, square, extravagant, unique.
7. Write four sentences containing Nouns used as Adjectives, and four containing Adjectives used as Nouns.
8. Write sentences containing the following words as Adjectives and state to what class each Adjective belongs : few, whole, good, which, tall, French, such, hopeful.
9. Write four sentences containing Phrases used as Adjectives.
10. Assign to the various Classes the Adjectives in the following sentences, and state their degree and their use (Attributive or Predicative) :—
 - (1) Various nations have customs peculiar to themselves.
 - (2) Every dog has his day.
 - (3) Several people begged him to give way, but he stood firm.
 - (4) A country mouse invited a town mouse to a modest supper.
 - (5) Those men were not satisfied, despite all their honours.
 - (6) An honest man's the noblest work of God.
 - (7) But redder yet that light shall glow
On Linden's hill of stained snow.
 - (8) And the pale augurs, muttering low,
Gaze on that blasted head.
11. Mention (i) three Adjectives which cannot be compared ; (ii) three which are irregularly compared ; (iii) three which are Demonstrative ; (iv) three which cannot be used *before* a Noun ; (v) three which are usually separated from a Noun in the Singular by the Indefinite Article ; and (vi) three which can be separated from a Noun they qualify by the Definite Article. What will cause inversion of the Indefinite Article with any Adjective of Quality?

*such
that*

*eye
like*

CHAPTER IX

ADVERBS

143. **A**N ADVERB is a word used to modify or describe more fully any Part of Speech except a Noun or Pronoun. It is the function of an Adjective to modify Nouns and Pronouns; nevertheless, we find such phrases as: The *then* king; the *above* statement; a *far* country. Two explanations may be given of such instances:—

(1) That the Adverb is there used as an Adjective, just as we have seen (§ 136) that an Adjective is sometimes used for an Adverb.

(2) That the Adverb modifies some Adjective understood, the above phrases being equivalent to “the then reigning king,” etc.

Of these two explanations the former is the more logical, since one Part of Speech is frequently used for another in English, and since, moreover, there is no ground for supposing that words like “reigning,” etc., were ever employed in those phrases.

It is better to avoid using any except such familiar expressions altogether; otherwise we shall be tempted to say with Shakspeare “our here approach,” and such phrases.

An Adverb, then, may modify Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctions and Prepositions, though its main function is to modify Verbs. We append a few examples:—

He came *gladly* (with Verb).

They were *very* happy (with Adjective).

You speak *too* quickly (with Adverb).

They came *just* because they had nothing else to do (with Conjunction).

He stood *almost* under the crane (with Preposition).

144. USES OF ADVERBS—Adverbs, like Adjectives, may be used:

(1) **Attributively**, with the word modified; this is their ordinary use.

(2) **Predicatively**, as complement to a Verb: this use is not so common.

Examples: He looks *well*, he is *here*.

Adverbs are also much used in two other ways:—

(3) **Interrogatively**, *i.e.* for the purpose of asking a question: *e.g.*

Where have you been?

When did you arrive?

(4) **Absolutely**, when they modify the whole sentence: *e.g.*

Fortunately, I had enough money with me.

Positively, I do not know where I left it.

145. CLASSIFICATION—Adverbs are classified according to their meaning, according as they indicate:—

(1) **Time**: *e.g.* then, now, to-day, early, soon, twice, never.

(2) **Place**: *e.g.* here, there, far, outside, away.

(3) **Manner**: *e.g.* thus, quickly, well, briefly.

(4) **Degree**: *e.g.* quite, too, so, very, yes, no, not.

(5) **Reason**: *e.g.* therefore, consequently, then.

Many Adverbs have more than one signification, and may therefore be placed in more than one of the above classes: *e.g.*

Then we spoke (Time).

You see, *then*, what I mean? (Reason).

So also some Adverbs do not exactly fit into a particular class, *e.g.* *repeatedly* conveys the idea of Time and Manner. In such cases the Adverb must be placed where it is most appropriate.

146. ADVERBS OR CONJUNCTIONS?—The words when, why, where, how, while, whence, whether, because, since, etc., require consideration.

In the sentences: "He came *while* I was speaking," "He was here *when* you arrived," are we to class *while*, *when* as Conjunctions or Adverbs? They certainly join sentences in exactly the same manner as *but*, *and*, *that*, and therefore appear to be Conjunctions. At the same time it may be noted that the words *when*, *while* have some reference to Time; though they do not modify the meaning of *was speaking*, *arrived*. Indeed it is the whole sentences, *while I was speaking*, *when you arrived*, which tell us *when* he came, *when* he was here.

Such words, therefore, fulfil the functions of both Adverb and Conjunction, but mainly the latter; hence they are best described as **Adverbial Conjunctions**.

NOTE.—Many of the same words are used Interrogatively (§ 144); in that case, since they do not join sentences, they are Adverbs.

147. FORMATION OF ADVERBS—

(1) Many Adverbs are formed from **Adjectives** by the addition of the termination **-ly**: *e.g.* safe, safely; quick, quickly; bright, brightly.

(a) When the Adjective ends in **-y**, this is changed to **-i**: *e.g.* gay, gaily, happy, happily; pretty, prettily. Exceptions: shyly, coyly.

(b) When the Adjective ends in **-le**, this is dropped: *e.g.* affable, affably; suitable, suitably.

(c) Adjectives in **-ly** seldom form Adverbs as above, though we do find holily, friendlily, sillily. It is best to avoid such awkward formations by using a phrase: *e.g.* "in a holy manner."

(d) A few Adverbs are of the same form as Adjectives: *e.g.* fast, much, better, late, little.

(2) Some Adverbs are also formed from Nouns, *e.g.* besides, needs, yesterday; also the Adverbial Objectives such as "home" (§ 78).

(3) Some Prepositions are used as Adverbs, *e.g.* in, out, after, on; as in: "They walked *in*," "He went *out*."

So also some Adverbs are obtained by compounding Prepositions with other Parts of Speech, *e.g.* hereby, therein, besides.

148. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS—Adverbs are compared in the same way as Adjectives by adding **-er**, **-est**, and by *more* and *most*. As there are few Adverbs admitting of Comparison which are of one syllable, the first method is not common; examples are:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
soon	sooner	soonest
fast	faster	fastest
early	earlier	earliest

We rarely find such forms as *gladlier*.

A few have **Irregular Comparison**; the Comparative and Superlative of the majority of these is of the same form as the Adjective (§ 138).

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
well	better	best
ill		
badly	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
late	later	{ latest
		{ last
nigh	nigher	{ nighest
near	nearer	{ next
		{ nearest
far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest
rathe (<i>obsolete</i>)	rather	—

149. POSITION OF ADVERBS—It may be taken as a general rule that Adverbs should be placed as close as possible to the word they modify. The following special cases should be noted :—

(1) Adverbs used Interrogatively stand *first* in the sentence: *e.g.*

Where shall I go?

(2) Adverbs used Absolutely are generally placed *first* in the sentence: *e.g.*

Naturally, he did not pass the examination.

Note that the meaning is quite different if the order is altered to: "He did not pass the examination *naturally*."

(3) Adverbs are placed *before* the Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, or Conjunction which they modify: *e.g.*

He seemed *strangely* excited.

He ran *right* round the course.

(4) With *Verbs*, various positions are taken :—

(a) If the Verb is Intransitive, the Adverb generally follows it: *e.g.*

They walk *quickly*.

(b) If the Verb is Transitive, the Adverb never separates Verb and Object, but either precedes the former, or follows the latter: *e.g.*

They *gladly* welcomed their friends;

or, They welcomed their friends *gladly*.

- (c) If the Verb is made up of an Auxiliary + an Infinitive or Participle, the Adverb often comes between the two : *e.g.*

They were *easily* beaten.

He had *just* finished.

- (d) Adverbs of Time, and a few others, often precede a Verb, even if Intransitive : *e.g.*

We *often* go to his house.

They *frequently* laugh at his quaint manner.

- (5) These positions are sometimes varied for the sake of emphasis (see Chap. xvi.), and also in poetry : *e.g.*

Hardly had I spoken when you arrived.

There stood the man.

150. REMARKS ON CERTAIN ADVERBS—

As may be : (1) A Relative Pronoun (see § 126).

(2) An Adverbial Conjunction.

(a) With the meaning *because* : *e.g.*

I forgive you *as* you have confessed your fault.

(b) With the meaning *in the manner that* : *e.g.*

He is not cheerful *as* you are.

(3) An Adverb of Degree, with the meaning *to that extent* : *e.g.*

You are not *as* tall as you look.

The second “*as*” is an Adverbial Conjunction.

The use of *as* as a Preposition : *e.g.* “He is as tall *as* me,” is doubtful English, and is best avoided (see § 167).

So indicates manner, degree, or reason : *e.g.*

He spoke *so* politely that I was deceived (Degree).

It *so* falls out that what we have we prize not to the full (Manner).

He worked hard *so* that he might succeed (Reason).

NOTE.—(1) *So* as an Adverb of Degree must not be used in the sense of *very*. “I was *so* pleased to receive your letter” is a common error.

(2) *So* is also used as a Demonstrative Pronoun (§ 124, Note 2).

Quite is an Adverb of Degree, meaning *perfectly* : *e.g.*

He spoke *quite* naturally.

It should not be used with the meaning *very* or *rather*, as in the sentence : We have had *quite* a nice journey.

Nor must it be used as an Adjective, as in the sentence :—

There was *quite* a crowd there.

The, placed before a Comparative, is an Adverb of Degree: *e.g.*

The sooner *the* better ; *the* more *the* merrier.

The latter phrase literally means : “to the extent that (there are) more, to that extent (we shall be) merrier.”

This word *the* has no connection in origin or use with the Definite Article; it was originally the Instrumental Case of the Demonstrative *that*.

There is used not only as an Adverb of Place, but also as an Introductory Adverb with indefinite meaning: *e.g.*

There was once a man who . . .

The use of *now* is similar: *e.g.*

Now it happened that he was ignorant of the fact.

With these may be compared the introductory uses of *it* (§ 121) and *and* (§ 167). Some authorities assign all these words to no Part of Speech, but group them under the vague term *Particles*.

Very is used with Adjectives to form a weak Superlative: *e.g.*

He was *very* happy.

It must not be used with Past Participles, unless these have become thorough Adjectives: thus “he was very admired” is incorrect.

Similarly, *rather* is used to form a weak Comparative: *e.g.*

He was *rather* surprised.

Yes and **No**. These words are usually classed as Adverbs because of their analogy to *not*. They really take the place of a whole sentence: *e.g.*

Were you there? *Yes* (= I was there).

Did you speak? *No* (= I did not speak).

They have, therefore, been aptly termed **Pro-Sentences** or **Substitute Adverbs**. It should be observed that *no* is also an Adverb of Degree: *e.g.*

He is *no* longer with us.

NOTE.—Two Negatives in Modern English form an Affirmative. Thus, “he is *not* unknown to us,” is a variation of “he is known to us,”

with a shade of difference in meaning. Older writers used a **Double Negative** to strengthen the Negation. Thus Shakspeare has :—

Nor never look upon his face again.

Nor to no Roman else.

Such a use is accounted a vulgarity in Modern English.

151. ADVERBIAL PHRASES (see § 48)—These may be classified in the same manner as Adverbs: *e.g.*

He stood *on the bridge* (place) *at midnight* (time).

He came *in haste* (manner) *to our house* (place).

The enemy having been reinforced (reason), the general retreated.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IX.

1. Define an Adverb and state how Adverbs may be classified.
2. What is the general rule as to the position of an Adverb in a sentence? Examine its application when a Verb is modified.
3. Explain the various ways in which Adverbs are used.
4. Write notes on the use of the words: yes, no, quite, when, there.
5. Write *six* sentences in which an Adverb modifies something else than a Verb.
6. In what ways may Adverbs be compared? Give the comparison of hastily, far, loud, much, sadly, well. Mention *six* Adverbs which do not admit of Comparison, giving reasons.
7. Discuss the meaning and grammatical use of the words in *italics* in the following sentences :—

(1) *As* it is fine, I shall go for a walk.

(2) He looked *so* unhappy that I thought *there* was something wrong.

(3) Drive *somewhat* faster *when* you are in the main road.

(4) I said *so merely* because I wished to please him.

(5) *Certainly* I will come *as soon as* I am ready.

8. Assign to their classes the Adverbs and Adverbial phrases in the following sentences, and state what words or phrases they modify :—

(1) Quickly they rushed to his house, but it was too late.

(2) Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

(3) Seeing no one, I marched boldly on.

(4) O'er Nelson's tomb, with silent grief oppressed
Britannia mourns her hero now at rest.

(5) Unfortunately, he went away so early that I did not see him.

(6) You have never seen him, and therefore you ought not to criticise him.

(7) He has been very ill, but has now completely recovered.

(8) We shall pay you a visit sooner or later.

CHAPTER X

PREPOSITIONS

152. **A** PREPOSITION is a word used to join a Noun or its equivalent to some other word in the sentence, in order to show the relationship existing between the objects named. When we say "the book is *on* the table" we are not merely grammatically connecting the words *book* and *table*; we are also expressing the connection existing between the object *book* and the object *table*.

A Preposition usually precedes the Noun or equivalent which it joins to the rest of the sentence.

It may join :—

(1) Nouns and Pronouns : *e.g.*

That boy is *in* the street (joining *boy* and *street*).

They are *in* the house (joining *they* and *house*).

(2) A Noun to an Adjective, Verb or Adverb :—

He is happy *in* his choice (joining *happy* and choice).

They work *with* zest (joining *work* and *zest*).

Fortunately *for* England, he recovered (joining *fortunately* and *England*).

(3) A Noun-equivalent to some other word, phrase, or sentence :
e.g.

To die *in* defending one's country is heroic (joining *to die* and *defending one's country*).

This is quite different *from* what we expected (joining *different* and *what we expected*).

153. CLASSIFICATION—Prepositions might be classified, as Adverbs are, according to their meaning; but as the meaning of Prepositions varies so greatly, such a classification is of little value.

A better division of Prepositions is according to their formation into :—

(1) **Simple** : *e.g.* of, to, by, with, from, at.

(2) **Compound** ; formed from a simple Preposition and some other word : *e.g.* into, within, besides, underneath, towards.

154. PREPOSITIONAL EQUIVALENTS—

(1) Two Prepositions : *e.g.*

He walked *down by* the river.

They came *from behind* the rock.

. . . When that which drew *from out* the boundless deep. . .

(2) A Verb :—

(a) A Present Participle : *e.g.*

There are many opinions *concerning* this question.

You can continue *pending* their decision.

(b) A Past Participle : *e.g.*

It is *past* midnight.

(3) An Adjective : *e.g.*

He is very much *like* you.

This was *worth* a penny.

(4) A Phrase : *e.g.*

He went *on board* the ship.

In the midst of life we are in death.

155. GOVERNMENT—A Preposition is said to *govern* the Noun or equivalent it precedes. Thus in the sentences

He laid the book *on* the table.

He laid the burden *on* him.

the Preposition *on* is said to govern *table*, *him*. Such governed words are always in the *Objective Case*.

NOTE.—Formerly Prepositions governed the Possessive and Dative as well as the Objective. Some grammarians still regard words governed by certain Prepositions as in the Dative Case : *e.g.* in the sentence “ He is very much like you,” *you* is said to be Dative. To avoid confusion, it is best to consider all such governed words as levelled down to the Objective, reserving the Dative Case for the Indirect Object of Verbs (§ 84).

156. POSITION—The Preposition is occasionally placed **after** its governed word. This is frequently the case when the governed word is a Relative Pronoun, and **always** when the Relative *that* is governed : *e.g.*

{ I know the men *whom* you were speaking *about* . . .
 { or, I know the men *about whom* you were speaking.
 I have read the books *that* you were speaking *about*.
 [But we cannot say : I have read the books about that you were speaking.]

Under such circumstances the governed Pronoun is often omitted, especially in conversation: *e.g.* I know the men you were speaking about.

157. PREPOSITIONS AND ADVERBS—Many words are used both as Prepositions and as Adverbs. They must be distinguished according to their use in the sentence. If they govern a Noun or its equivalent, and cannot be removed from the sentence without destroying its meaning, they are Prepositions.

Examples : { The boy sat *on* the fence (Prep.).
 { He walked *on* briskly (Adv.).
 { The horses are *outside* the house (Prep.).
 { He is waiting *outside* (Adv.).

158. PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS—Although the treatment of Conjunctions belongs to the next chapter, it will be convenient here to illustrate in a similar manner the distinction between certain words which are used as Prepositions and Conjunctions. The test of § 157 will usually indicate the Prepositional use.

Examples : { I will answer *for* him (Prep.).
 { I came at once *for* I thought you called me (Conj.).
 { The concert does not begin *till* six o'clock (Prep.).
 { Do not return *till* I send for you (Conj.).

Certain difficult cases occur which will be discussed in § 159. There are a few words such as *before*, *after*, *since*, which are used as Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Prepositions: *e.g.*

{ He came *after* supper (Prep.).
 { We look *before* and *after* (Adverbs).
 { I shall go out *after* I have finished this letter (Conj.).

159. REMARKS ON CERTAIN PREPOSITIONS—

But is (1) Sometimes a Preposition, meaning *except*: *e.g.*

All our friends came *but* him.

In the well-known line "Whence all *but* he had fled," *but* is a Preposition and *he* should therefore be *him*.

(2) Most frequently a Conjunction : *e.g.*

He came *but* soon went away again.

(3) Also an Adverb : *e.g.* He is *but* (= only) a child.

(4) Equivalent to a Relative + a Negative (§ 126).

Except, originally a Past Participle (= excepted), is a Preposition : *e.g.* Everyone voted *except* him.

It cannot now be used as a Conjunction, though formerly this was possible : *e.g.* *Except* the Lord keep the city, the watchman waketh but in vain. Modern English uses *unless*.

The same remark applies to *without*. It is incorrect to say :

I shall not go *without* I have his permission.

Like, an Adjective, as in the phrase "in *like* manner," is also used as :

(1) A Preposition : *e.g.*

He is *like* them.

(2) Rarely, a Noun : *e.g.*

We shall not look upon his *like* again.

But *like* is never a Conjunction. It is incorrect, therefore, to say : He dresses *like* they do. *As* must be substituted.

Save, originally a Verb, is used as a Preposition : *e.g.*

All *save* him had perished.

It is incorrect to follow *save* with a Nominative, although formerly this was permissible : *e.g.* *Let none depart save I alone* ; perhaps this was regarded as equivalent to *I saved* or *excepted* (Nominative Absolute).

160. USE AND MEANING OF THE COMMON PREPOSITIONS—The greatest divergence is found both in the meaning and use of the Prepositions. English Prepositions have to do duty not only for the ordinary relationships between objects, common to all languages, but also for the various Cases, the inflections of which are for the most part lost in our language. They generally have one or more fundamental meanings from which other figurative or idiomatic meanings have arisen. Sometimes it is difficult to show that they have any particular signification at all ; and sometimes they seem to be used one for the other quite indiscriminately. We append examples of the various uses of the commonest Prepositions : with these as a basis, the student should be able to discuss any particular instance that may present itself.

At denotes *closeness or actual contact* :—

- Place : *at* the house.
 Time : *at* six o'clock, *at* present.
 Manner : *at* rest, *at* a glance.
 Value : *at* this rent.
 Cause : *at* my command, *at* will.

Beside, besides, denotes *position by the side of* :—

- Place : *beside* the sea (=at the side of).
 beside the question (=outside, not to do with).
 beside } all this (=in addition to).
 besides }

Between, among, amongst. *Between* is used in reference to two objects, *among* and *amongst* (indiscriminately) in reference to more than two: e.g. War *between* England and France.

Among the blind, the one-eyed man is king.

By denotes *nearness* :—

- Place : Sit *by* me (=near).
 Time : *by* six o'clock (=not after), *by* daylight (=during).
 Manner : held *by* the collar (=by means of).
 Agency : killed *by* a soldier.
 Instrument: driven *by* machinery.
 Measure : butter sold *by* the yard.
 Adjuration : *by* Jove!
 Reference : he did his duty *by* his friends (=towards).

For originally denoted *in front of*. Its present uses are various :—

- Place : he left *for* London.
 Time : he stayed there *for* six weeks.
 Cause : punished *for* laziness.
 Value : a penny *for* your thoughts (=in exchange for).
 Opposition : *for* all that, I shall do as I like (=despite).
 Favour : he died *for* his country (=on behalf of).

From denotes *motion or rest away from* : hence :—

- Place : he came *from* London.
 Time : your wages will commence *from* to-day.
 Cause : suffering *from* a weak heart.
 Separation : free *from* sorrow.
 Origin : descended *from* the Conqueror.

In, into. *In* mainly denotes *rest at*, *into* denotes *motion towards*.

The former is more general in its application than *at* and contains the notions of :—

- Place : he lives *in* the country.
 Time : *in* an hour.
 Manner : *in* sympathy, *in* tears.
 Reference : *in* my opinion, happy *in* his marriage (=in respect of).

Of mainly denotes (1) *possession*, (2) the various functions of *from* :—

Possession: the love *of* a mother for her child (=Subj. Poss.).

„ : for the love *of* his country (=Obj. Poss.).

„ : the pages *of* the book (=pertaining to).

Apposition: the city *of* London (=the city, London).

Origin : he came *of* a good family (=from).

Reference : tired *of* life ; we spoke *of* you (=concerning).

Cause : he died *of* consumption (=from).

Separation : bought *of* Mr Smith (=from).

This Preposition has also many other shades of meaning more or less closely related to the above.

On indicates *proximity* and position *above* or *outside* :—

- Place : he sat *on* the fence.
 Time : *on* that occasion.
 Reference : my opinion *on* such matters as these.
 Condition : *on* his honour, *on* your recommendation.

To originally denoted motion towards :—

- Place : go *to* your room !
 Time : the train was in *to* the minute.
 Reference : duty *to* our country (= with regard to, towards).
 Comparison : similar *to* that.
 Purpose : *to* succeed, you must work hard.

With has the meaning of Association and Opposition :—

- Accompaniment : Come *with* me.
 Manner : *with* pleasure.
 Instrument : he hit the man *with* a stone.
 Opposition : they fought *with* the enemy (= against).
 „ : *with* all thy faults I love thee still (= despite).

161. Certain words—Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs—require **particular Prepositions** after them. Only a dictionary or experience in English idiom can guide us in this matter. The following are a few examples :—

Nouns : an exception *to* the rule, instruction *in* Latin, notice *of* a lecture, our surprise *at* their behaviour.

Verbs : he was seized *with* remorse, they laughed *at* him, they parted *from* us, they hoped *for* better things.

Adjectives : different *from* that, similar *to* that, dependent *on* his father, independent *of* everyone.

Adverbs : dressed suitably *to* his rank, simultaneously *with* the explosion, fortunately *for* us.

NOTE.—It may be noted that the use of Prepositions has varied in the various periods of our language. Thus we say : “He lives *on* bread and water” ; Shakspeare has : “I live *with* bread like you” ; the Bible : “Man shall not live *by* bread alone.” Shakspeare has also the following :—

A pension paid *from* (= by) the Sophy.

The lady Beatrice hath a quarrel *to* (= with) you.

Art thou a messenger or come *of* (= for) pleasure ?

How say you *by* (= concerning) the French lord ?

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X.

1. Write two sentences showing the same word used in one as a Preposition and in the other as a Conjunction ; also two sentences showing the same word as Preposition and Adverb. (M)

2. Explain the term *Preposition*. How does a Preposition differ from

a Conjunction ? Mention some Prepositions that have become Conjunctions. (M)

3. Write down with examples as many different uses as you can remember of the Prepositions *by*, *to*, *at*. (M)

4. Mention Adjectives which are followed, respectively, by the Prepositions *of* and *to*, arranging your examples, as far as possible, in classes. (M)

5. Discuss the use of the Prepositions *italicised* in the following :—

- (1) He did his duty *by* him.
- (2) *Under* these circumstances
- (3) Ten *to* one it is not so.
- (4) Add ten *to* one.
- (5) Keep up *for* my sake.
- (6) He went *past* the house.
- (7) The island *of* Great Britain.
- (8) Do your duty *by* the University. (M)

6. Explain the use of *after* and *out* in the following :—

- (1) *After* him then and bring him back.
- (2) *After* he came, all went wrong.
- (3) You go first and I will come *after*.
- (4) *After* that, I will say no more.
- (5) *Out*, brief candle !
- (6) He was quite *out* of it.
- (7) *Out* upon it !
- (8) He was beaten *out and out*.
- (9) He proved an *out and out* deceiver. (M)

7. Explain the meaning and syntax of *but* in the following :—

- (1) There is none here *but* hates me.
- (2) And was not this the earl ? 'Twas none *but* he.
- (3) He would have died *but* for me.
- (4) He is all *but* perfect.
- (5) There's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st
But in his motion like an angel sings.
- (6) He is *but* a madman. (M)

8. Write sentences to show the uses of the following words as Prepositions : between, among, notwithstanding, during, but, since.

9. Take six of our common English Prepositions and show in what way each has been taken to represent different relations of time, place, and causality. (M)

10. Discuss the sense and syntax of the Prepositions *of* in the following :—

- (1) The city *of* Rome.
- (2) His love for me was wonderful, passing the love *of* women.
- (3) All *of* a sudden.
- (4) What a day we had *of* it !
- (5) He died *of* a fever.
- (6) What *of* that ?
- (7) It was very good *of* you.
- (8) Upwards *of* five hundred pounds. (M)

11. State what Prepositions are used with the following words, and give sentences to illustrate your answer : adapted, conformable, provide reserve, composed, connect, consequent, expert, compare, absolve.

CHAPTER XI

CONJUNCTIONS

162. **A** CONJUNCTION is a word which joins sentences and sometimes words. It has been urged that a Conjunction always joins sentences and not *words*. Thus the sentence: "His father *and* his mother came," can be expanded into: "His father came *and* his mother came." But it will be seen that such sentences as the following cannot be thus expanded:—

Two *and* two make four.

This costs seven shillings *and* sixpence.

In these sentences *and* is not a Preposition, for it is incorrect to say: "You and *me* will go together." Hence it must be admitted that Conjunctions (especially *and*) do sometimes join words and phrases as well as sentences. When words are thus joined they are always of the *same Case*.

163. CLASSIFICATION—Conjunctions are usually divided into two main classes according to their use:—

(1) **Co-ordinate**, joining two sentences or words of equal importance. Such are: *and, but, either . . . or, neither . . . nor*.

Examples of use: He came *but* soon returned.

Neither this man *nor* this woman is guilty.

(2) **Subordinate**, joining a sentence to another expressing a thought of greater importance. Such are: *that, as, after, before, since, when, where, unless, if*, etc.

Examples of use: He said *that* he was satisfied.

I will do it *if* you like.

Further remarks on these classes of Conjunctions will be found in Chapter xiii.

164. POSITION OF CONJUNCTIONS—Conjunctions usually stand between the two words or sentences connected, and though strictly belonging to neither sentence, are generally considered for convenience to form part of the sentence which follows them.

Sometimes a Subordinate Conjunction and the sentence it introduces precedes the principal sentence, and thus the Conjunction does not stand between the two sentences which it grammatically connects : *e.g.*

Because I live, ye shall live also.

After you have finished, I will talk to you.

165. CORRELATIVES—Certain Conjunctions (and Adverbs) are used in pairs ; they are termed **Correlatives**.

Examples : *Both* Henry *and* I are sure of it.

Either this man *or* this woman must leave.

Neither you *nor* he has heard of it.

NOTE.—After words joined by *both . . . and*, or simply by *and*, a plural Verb is required ; but after *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, the Verb must agree with the nearest subject : *e.g.*

Either you or I *am* right.

Neither you nor he *is* wrong.

But since such constructions sound awkward, it is better to alter the sentences to :

Either you are right, or I am.

You are not right, nor is he.

166. CONJUNCTION OR ADVERB?—We have already seen that the same word is often used for Conjunction, Preposition, and Adverb (§ 158).

There are, however, a certain class of words, such as *then*, *therefore*, *so*, *still*, *yet*, *hence*, *consequently*, *also*, which often stand between two sentences, and which, accordingly, some grammarians term Conjunctions. Consider the sentences:—

You know your duty ; hence you have no excuse.

A is B, therefore C is D.

In each of these instances there are two independent sentences not grammatically connected ; if any grammatical connection were made, the word *and* would have to be inserted before *hence*, *therefore*. The two latter words are simply equivalent to *for that reason*—an Adverbial Phrase of Reason (§§ 145, 151). Hence all words of this nature are best described as **Adverbs**.

167. REMARKS ON CERTAIN CONJUNCTIONS—

Either, Neither. These words are also Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives (§ 129).

Or is used as a Correlative with *either*, and also by itself: *e.g.*

It was you *or* he who said so.

If has two meanings :

(a) *Supposing that*: If he is there, I shall tell him.

(b) *Whether*: I do not know *if* this is true or not.

And, besides joining two co-ordinate sentences, has an introductory use, similar to that of *there, now* (§ 150): *e.g.*

And why should Caesar be a tyrant, then?

And, pray, why should I not do so?

As well as. The first *as* is an Adverb, the second a Conjunction (§ 150); the whole forms a Conjunctional phrase. The Verb following agrees with the *first* subject, not with the nearer: *e.g.*

He, as well as they, *was* there.

Since this sounds awkward, it is better to say, "he was there as well as they."

Than and **as**, being (generally) Conjunctions, require the same case after them as before them. Thus we say: "He is more fortunate *than I*" and "He is as fortunate *as I*," where *I* is nominative to a Verb *am* which may be mentally supplied. (§ 190).

Modern usage is, on the whole, against the employment of *than* and *as* as Prepositions. Thus the sentences:—

He is more fortunate *than me* }
He is as fortunate *as me* } are considered incorrect.

Yet older writers sometimes, and good modern authors occasionally, use these words as prepositions: *e.g.*

Is she as tall *as me*? (SHAKESPEARE.)

A man no mightier *than thyself or me*. „

Satan *than whom* none higher sat. (MILTON.)

The nations not so blest *as thee*. (THOMSON.)

NOTE.—There are certain sentences in which a Verb cannot easily be supplied after the nominative following *than*; for instance:—

They asked more *than a sovereign* for the book.

He walked less *than a mile*.

Some call *than* a Preposition in such examples. But Conjunctions

join *words* as well as sentences and, as shown in § 162, it is impossible to expand some sentences containing the Conjunction *and*; the same explanation may fitly apply to *than*.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XI.

1. Define a Conjunction, and show how Conjunctions can be classified.
2. Show by means of examples how the following words can be sometimes used as Prepositions and sometimes as Conjunctions : *for, before, but, since*. Can *like, than, except* be thus used ? Give reasons for your answer.
3. Write *three* sentences containing Co-ordinate Conjunctions, *three* containing Subordinate Conjunctions, and *three* containing Correlative Conjunctions.
4. Mention three conjunctive phrases, and introduce them into sentences.
5. Point out the Conjunctions in the following sentences, state their class, and what they connect :—
 - (1) I shall not leave here until you allow me to do so.
 - (2) As you say that it is true, I must believe it.
 - (3) You and I will ask whether he is at home.
 - (4) They would not go lest they might miss their friends.
 - (5) After you have spoken to him send him on to me.
 - (6) He acknowledged his disobedience, but he refused to say where he had been.
 - (7) Although he said so, I cannot believe him, for he does not always speak the truth.
 - (8) If I am not much mistaken, neither you nor he knows anything about it.

CHAPTER XII

INTERJECTIONS

168. **A**N INTERJECTION is a word used to express an emotion rather than to aid in the expression of a thought. Strictly speaking, Interjections are only sounds. They may express :—

Joy : hurrah ! bravo !

Sorrow : alack ! alas !

Surprise : ah ! oh ! O ! hallo !

Contempt : pooh ! bah ! fie !

and various other phases of feeling.

169. INTERJECTIONAL PHRASES—Interjections form no part of a sentence ; in analysis we are obliged to take such words by themselves, and treat them in a similar manner to Nominatives of Address (§ 77).

Various Parts of Speech and whole phrases often play the part of Interjections, and must be similarly treated ; they are often considerably abbreviated.

Examples : Marry ! (= by the Virgin Mary), good-bye ! (= God be with you), farewell ! (= may you fare well), by Jingo ! (= by St Gingoulph), adieu ! (= I commend you to God's care), oyes ! (= French oyez = hear).

So also : hear, hear ! hail ! welcome ! oh dear me ! shocking ! for shame !

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XII.

1. What is an Interjection ? Mention six Interjections and state what they express.
2. Show that the various Parts of Speech may be used as Interjections.
3. Mention six interjectional phrases and show, as far as you can, in what way they have been abbreviated, if at all.

CHAPTER XIII

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

I. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

170. **W**E have already defined a sentence, and have dealt with the main elements of a **Simple Sentence** (Chapter iv.).

Before passing on to more complicated types of sentences, we shall treat in somewhat minuter detail the analysis of the simple sentence, and shall endeavour to clear up certain difficulties.

A complete understanding of the process of analysis of a simple sentence, and constant practice therein, are necessary preliminaries to more advanced work.

171. FURTHER SUBDIVISIONS—In Chapter iv. the four main elements of the simple sentence—the Subject, Predicate, Object, and Extension of the Predicate—were set forth.

We must now add that the Subject and Object may frequently be further subdivided into the main Subject and Object—which we shall hereafter simply call the Subject and Object—and their **Enlargements** or **Adjuncts**. Consider the sentence :—

A humble peasant visited the powerful king.

The main subject of the Verb *visited* is *peasant*; the words *a* and *humble* are Adjectives describing *peasant*, and are therefore **Enlargements of the Subject**.

Similarly, the object of the Verb *visited* is *king*; the words *the* and *powerful* are **Enlargements of this Object**.

We have already indicated that the Predicate may sometimes be subdivided into Verb and Complement (§ 51).

172. THE ENLARGEMENT OF A SUBJECT OR OBJECT may consist of:—

(1) An Adjective: as in the example given.

(2) An Adjectival Phrase: *e.g.*

The (Adj.) *man looking at these pictures* (Adj. Phrase) *is*

a (Adj.) *well-known* (Adj.) *artist.*

His sole (Adjs.) *ambition in studying English* (Adj.

Phrase) *was to pass the examination.*

(3) A Noun in Apposition or in the Possessive: *e.g.*

William duke of Normandy defeated *Harold the king.*

The man's hat fell off.

173. PARTS OF A SIMPLE SENTENCE—Thus we may now analyse a simple sentence into:—

{ 1. Subject.

{ 2. Enlargement of Subject, if any.

{ 3. Predicate.

{ 4. Complement of Predicate, if any.

{ 5. Object.

{ 6. Enlargement of Object, if any.

7. Extension of the Predicate.

174. EXAMPLES — We append a few examples of such analysis. Some prefer the Line-by-line method, and some the Tabular method.

The **Tabular Method** has its disadvantages, since it is frequently impossible to fit certain words into the columns provided, and certain columns must necessarily appear blank for some sentences. It has the advantage, however, of being clear, and thus the correctness or incorrectness of the analysis is seen at a glance.

The **Line-by-line Method** possesses the advantage that a note may be added on any difficulty or peculiarity. It sometimes happens that there are two possible ways of considering a word or phrase; in such instances our opinion and its reason should be stated. We give illustrations of both methods.

A. *The sly slow hours shall not determinate*

The dateless limit of thy dear exile.

Subject: hours.

Enlargement: the sly slow.

Predicate : shall determinate.

Object : limit.

Enlargements : (1) the dateless.
(2) of thy dear exile.

Extension : not (Degree).

B. *These words hereafter thy tormentors be !*

Subject : words.

Enlargement : these

Predicate : be.

Complement : thy tormentors.

Extension : hereafter (Time).

C. *Why doth it not, then, our eye-lids sink ?*

Subject : it.

Predicate : doth sink.

Object : eyelids.

Enlargement : our.

Extensions : (1) why (Interrog. of Reason).

(2) not (Degree).

(3) then (Reason).

D. *The duke by law found his deserts.*

E. *Are yet two such Romans living ?*

F. *Herein all breathless lies*

The mightiest of thy greatest enemies,

Richard of Bordeaux, by me hither brought.

G. *Some men are never at heart's ease.*

Sentence	Subject Enlargement	Predicate Complement	Object Enlargement	Extension of Predicate
D.	duke the	found	deserts his	by law (Manner)
E.	Romans two such	are living		yet (Time)
F.	Richard (1) of Bordeaux (2) the mightiest of thy greatest enemies (3) by me hither brought	lies		(1) herein (Place) (2) All breathless (Manner)
G.	men some	are at heart's ease (or extension)		never (Time and Degree)

175. DIFFICULTIES IN ANALYSIS—We shall now illustrate methods of dealing with some difficulties which occur in the analysis of a sentence.

(a) *O Julius Cæsar, thou art mighty yet!*

The words *O Julius Cæsar* form a Nominative of Address (§ 77). Strictly speaking, they stand apart from the rest of the sentence, and therefore should find no place in a Tabular Analysis; but as they are more closely connected with the subject than with anything else they may be placed, for convenience, under that heading with the words "Nom. of Address" appended in brackets.

An Interjection or Exclamatory Phrase may be similarly treated.

(b) *He gave me a book.*

The word *book* is the object; *me* is indirect object (or dative), and may be placed in the object column with the word "indirect" appended in brackets. Other objects (§ 88), with the exception of the Adverbial Objective, may be similarly treated.

(c) *He gave a book to those men.*

Ought the words *to those men* to be treated similarly to *me* in (b)? When a phrase with a Preposition occurs thus, it is preferable to place it in the Extension column, since it forms an Adverbial Phrase similar to such a phrase as "at that time," which would obviously be an Extension indicating Time. It is unnecessary in this, as in many other cases, to specify the *kind* of extension when such kind cannot easily be assigned.

(d) *The soldiers in the town fought bravely.*

The phrase *in the town* is *not* an Extension of the Predicate, since it does not tell us where the soldiers fought; it is connected entirely with *the soldiers*, and is therefore an Enlargement of the Subject. If the sentence were "The soldiers fought bravely in the town," the same words would, of course, form an Extension to the Predicate *fought*.

(e) *The boy, having learnt his lessons thoroughly, received full marks.*

Participial Phrases, such as *having learnt his lessons thoroughly*, may often be considered either as Enlargements of the Subject (or Object) or as Extensions of the Predicate. The student must decide in any particular instance whether such a phrase is **more**

closely related to the Subject or to the Predicate. In the above sentence, *having learnt his lessons* might be regarded as the reason *why he received* full marks, and might therefore be termed an Extension of the Predicate; but as, grammatically, *having learnt* is a Participle qualifying *boy*, it seems preferable to classify the phrase as an Enlargement of the Subject.

(f) *His business being speedily concluded, he returned home.*

The phrase *his business being speedily concluded* forms a Nominative Absolute (§ 77). It is an Adverbial phrase telling us *when* or *why* he returned, and therefore forms an Extension of the Predicate.

(g) *He came to see you.*

The Infinitive *to see* is here used *Adverbially* (§ 100), and tells us *why* he came; it is therefore an Extension.

In the sentence: *They decided to fight*, the Infinitive is used as a *Noun*, and is the Object (§ 100).

(h) *By that time I shall have been learning to speak French a year.*

The words *shall have been learning* together form one Finite Verb, and should be placed in the Predicate column; *to speak* should, however (with the word *French*), be placed in the Object column.

(i) *Your friends are in the garden.*

Should the phrase *in the garden* be taken as Complement or Extension? We prefer to consider the Verb *are* as here a complete Intransitive Verb with the meaning "rest" (§ 117, I.); and the phrase *in the garden* is therefore an Extension of Place.

In cases like this, where there is some doubt as to whether a word or phrase is Complement or Extension, the best test is: does the word or phrase tell us *when, where, how, etc.*? If so it is Adverbial, and therefore an Extension. If it tells us *what* (and is not an Object), it is a Complement: e.g. He grows *tall* (Comp.).

II. COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

176. Few of our thoughts are isolated: one thought has generally some connection with another, and if the connection is sufficiently close the sentences expressing these thoughts are grammatically connected. Thus suppose the two thoughts occur

to me : (1) He is a tall boy ; (2) He eats a great deal. I may combine these by saying :—

He is a tall boy because he eats a great deal ;

or, He is a tall boy and therefore he eats a great deal ;

or, As he is a tall boy, he naturally eats a great deal,
according to the connection between the two thoughts.

But suppose the two thoughts are (1) He is a tall boy, (2) He has no brother. These ideas seem to have no connection with each other, and cannot therefore be easily combined. Thus I cannot say

He is a tall boy but has no brother,

or any other such sentence, because the thoughts are too isolated for combination.

Besides the simple sentence, expressing a single thought, we therefore have more complicated sentences expressing two or more thoughts. Such sentences may be **Compound** or **Complex**.

177. A COMPOUND SENTENCE is the expression of two or more equally important thoughts. It may thus be regarded as a combination of two or more simple sentences, and these are usually connected by Co-ordinate Conjunctions (§ 163). The separate sentences are said to be of equal rank or **Co-ordinate**.

Examples : *He came to our house and stayed a short time.*

They saw me but did not stop.

Either you are mistaken or I am.

Sometimes the Conjunction is omitted : *e.g.*

I came, I saw, I conquer'd.

178. A COMPLEX SENTENCE is the expression of two or more thoughts, of which one is more important than the rest, these latter being dependent on the more important one. The sentence expressing the main thought is termed the **Principal Sentence** or **Clause**, and those expressing the thoughts dependent on it are termed **Subordinate Sentences** or **Clauses**.

Subordinate Clauses are joined to the Principal Clause by Subordinate Conjunctions or by Relative Pronouns.

Examples : *I said that I was going away.*

They brought the book | which you wanted.

We came when you called us.

In these sentences, *I said, they brought the book, we came*, are the main statements, and therefore the Principal Clauses; the others are the Subordinate Clauses.

Sometimes the connecting word is omitted: *e.g.*

He said ^ he would come presently.

179. THE ANALYSIS of Compound and Complex Sentences comprises two operations. First of all we have to analyse the Compound or Complex Sentence into its Clauses, and to show the relation of these clauses to each other; and then we have to divide each clause into its elements.

180. TEST OF A CLAUSE. Each clause of a sentence is practically a simple sentence; it must therefore contain one Finite Verb and one only. In order, then, to discover which are the clauses of a sentence, the first thing to do is to pick out the Finite Verbs.

By this means we know the *number of clauses* in the sentence, and we have some idea of what those clauses are, though in many cases additional methods must be adopted to determine them exactly. The student is recommended at first to *underline* the Finite Verbs in the given sentence: after some practice he will be able to perform this operation mentally.

181. In the case of **Compound Sentences**, when the Finite Verbs are known, the clauses are easily determined.

Consider the sentences:—

A. He *came* to dinner and *stayed* till 11 o'clock.

The Finite Verbs are (1) *came*, (2) *stayed*. There are therefore two clauses, and obviously they are:—

(1) He came to dinner.

(2) And (he) stayed till 11 o'clock.

B. He, seeing the man in the street, *stopped* to speak to him and *gave* him money.

There are here four Verbs, *seeing, stopped, to speak, gave*; but of these only (1) *stopped* and (2) *gave* are finite. There are therefore two clauses which are easily seen to be:—

(1) He, seeing the man in the street, stopped to speak to him.

(2) And (he) gave him money.

All clauses of Compound Sentences are main or Principal Clauses.

NOTE.—The connecting word, though frequently, as above, not really part of either clause, is usually included in the one it introduces.

182. In the case of **Complex Sentences**, it is often possible to determine the separate clauses in the same manner.

Consider the sentences :

A. They *asked* me what I *meant*.

The Finite Verbs are (1) *asked*, and (2) *meant*, and hence the clauses are :—

(1) They asked me.

(2) What I meant.

B. These *are* the pens which I *intend* to use.

The Finite Verbs are (1) *are*, (2) *intend* : and hence the clauses are :—

(1) These are the pens.

(2) Which I intend to use.

But it is **not always possible** thus easily to determine the clauses of a Complex Sentence. Consider the sentence :—

C. The men whom we saw are at your house.

Here we have two Finite Verbs (1) *saw*, (2) *are*, and consequently two clauses. At first sight these might appear to be :—

(1) The men whom we saw.

(2) Are at your house.

A little reflection will show us, however, that this is not a correct division. The words *the men* evidently belong to the Verb *are* : in fact, they form the subject to that Verb. Hence the clauses are :—

(1) The men are at your house.

(2) Whom we saw.

This is an example of a type of frequent occurrence in which one of the clauses is broken up into two or three fragments which we have to collect together.

183. **PRINCIPAL AND SUBORDINATE** — The clauses having been determined, we have now to ask : Which is the Principal Clause? It is that which gives us the main statement. A good test by which the Principal Clause can be identified is that in almost all cases (but see § 187, note 1) it makes sense by itself.

Thus in sentence **C**, § 182, if we say: "The men are at your house," the sense is complete in itself, without the other part of the sentence. This clause then is *independent* of the rest of the sentence, *i.e.* it is the **Principal Clause**.

But if we say, "Whom we saw," evidently the sense is not complete. A person hearing us say this will wait for some other words; in this instance the omitted words would have come first.

This clause then is evidently *dependent* on some words which have preceded or which follow, *i.e.* it is the **Subordinate Clause**.

184. COMPOUND AND COMPLEX COMBINED—A sentence is frequently more complicated than the examples at present considered; it may contain both Compound and Complex elements.

Examples: **I.** *The men came to us when they had finished their work and insisted on seeing you.*

Here we have two Co-ordinate Sentences:—

A. The men came to see us when they had finished their work.

B. And insisted on seeing you.

Of these the first may be again analysed into two clauses:—

A. { (a) The men came to us.
(b) When they had finished their work.

Hence the whole sentence may be analysed into clauses thus:—

Co-ordinate { **A.** { (a) The men came to us (Principal).
(b) When they had finished their work (Subordinate).
B. And insisted on seeing you (Principal).

II. *When Cæsar had taken the town and had left a garrison there, he departed.*

According to the test of § 182, we have here one Principal Clause:—

A. He departed.

There are two other clauses similar to each other, and these are connected together by a Co-ordinate Conjunction. They are consequently co-ordinate with one another, and subordinate to **A.** Hence the whole sentence may be analysed into clauses thus:—

A. He departed (Principal).

- B. { (a) When Cæsar had taken the town (Subord.) } Co-ordinate.
 { (b) And had left a garrison (Subord.) }

The consideration of more involved sentences is deferred until Subordinate Clauses have been further examined.

185. SUBORDINATE CLAUSES may be dependent on the Principal Clause in three ways, according as they bear to a word in the Principal Clause the relation of:—

- (1) A Noun or Pronoun.
- (2) An Adjective.
- (3) An Adverb.

They are accordingly classified as Noun, Adjectival and Adverbial Clauses. It is frequently possible actually to substitute a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb for the entire Subordinate Clause without materially altering its meaning; and where this cannot be done it is always possible to see that a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb could be so substituted if an appropriate one existed.

Examples: (1) Principal + Noun Clause:—

He asked *what I wanted*.

(2) Principal + Adjectival Clause:—

This is the boy *who is clever*.

(3) Principal + Adverbial Clause:—

He came *when the sun had set*.

The Clause *what I wanted* may be replaced by *my wants*.

The Clause *who is clever* may be replaced by *clever* before *boy*.

The Clause *when the sun had set* may be replaced by *at sunset* without materially altering the sense.

186. THE NOUN CLAUSE may represent any function of a Noun with regard to a word in the Principal Clause and may therefore be:—

(1) The Subject to the Verb in the Principal Clause: *e.g.*

That the earth is round is now an undisputed fact.

When he will come seems quite uncertain.

(2) The Object to the Verb: *e.g.*

I know *where I will wear this dagger*.

He decided *that the army should be disbanded*.

(3) The Complement to the Verb: *e.g.*

That is *what I say*.

They are *what we thought them to be*.

(4) In Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun:—

It seems to me most strange *that men should fear*
(Appos. to *it*).

He mentioned the fact *that he was a doctor* (Appos. to *fact*).

(5) Governed by a Preposition:—

This is different from *what I expected*.

He worked for *whatever he could get*.

NOTE.—In the last two examples it is possible to consider the Principal Clauses as: *This is different* and *He worked*; in that case the Subordinates, *from what I expected* and *for whatever he could get* will be Adverbial Clauses of Manner and Reason respectively (see § 189). It is often possible to take a Clause in more than one way, according to the manner in which it is regarded. When there is any doubt, the *reasons* for taking a certain point of view should always be carefully stated.

187. ANALYSIS OF NOUN CLAUSES—In determining whether any particular clause is a Noun Clause the student should ask himself: Does this Clause play the part of Subject, Object, or Complement to the Verb in the Principal Clause? Or is it in Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun in that Clause, or governed by a Preposition? If so, it is a Noun Clause; reasons, *i.e.* relation of the Clause to the word or words in the Principal Clause, should always be stated.

Examples: A. *What is bred in the bone will come out in the flesh*:—

(1) Will come out in the flesh (Principal).

(2) What is bred in the bone (Noun Clause,
Subject to *will come* in 1).

B. *He thought that his friends had deserted him*:—

(1) He thought (Principal).

(2) That his friends had deserted him (Noun
Object to *thought* in 1).

NOTES.—(1) In Complex Sentences containing a Noun Clause as Subject, the Principal Sentence does not quite make sense by itself, because, of course, the subject is the Noun Clause (see § 187, A 1). A little reflection will, however, show us which is the Principal Clause.
(2) A Noun Clause is frequently introduced by *that* or *what*.

188. THE ADJECTIVAL CLAUSE qualifies some Noun or Pronoun in the Principal Clause: *e.g.*

- A. The evil *that men do* lives after them.
 B. The house *in which we live* is lofty.
 C. He was a general *whom all men admired*.
 D. We love the place, O Lord, *wherein thine honour dwells*.

These sentences should be thus analysed:—

- A. (1) The evil lives after them (Principal).
 (2) That men do (Adjectival, qualifying *evil* in 1).
 B. (1) The house is lofty (Principal).
 (2) In which we live (Adjectival, qualifying *house* in 1).
 C. (1) He was a general (Principal).
 (2) Whom all men admired (Adjectival, qualifying *general* in 1).
 D. (1) We love the place [O Lord] (Principal).
 (2) Wherein thine honour dwells (Adjectival, qualifying *place* in 1).

NOTES on the Adjectival Clause.

(1) The separation of this clause from the rest of the sentence frequently requires some thought. In sentences A and B, for instance, we have to pick our words from different parts of the sentence to form the Principal Clause.

(2) The words most commonly introducing Adjectival Clauses are the Relative Pronouns *who, which, what, that*. These are sometimes omitted when in the objective case: e.g. I know the man \wedge you mean.

189. THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE does the work of an Adverb, and may therefore modify a Verb, Adjective, or Adverb in the Principal Clause.

- Examples: A. He came *when I asked him*.
 B. He was standing *where I left him*.
 C. I came *because my horse would come*.
 D. *If I could pray to move*, prayers would move me.
 E. He is as happy *as he deserves to be*.
 F. He speaks French so quickly *that I cannot understand him*.

These sentences may be analysed into clauses thus:

- A. (1) He came (Principal).
 (2) When I asked him (Adverbial of Time, modifying *came* in 1).
 B. (1) He was standing (Principal).
 (2) Where I left him (Adv. of Place, mod. *was standing* in 1).
 C. (1) I came (Principal).
 (2) Because my horse would come (Adv. of Reason, mod. *came* in 1).

- D. (1) Prayers would move me (Principal).
 (2) If I could pray to move (Adv. of Condition, mod. *would move* in 1).
- E. (1) He is as happy (Principal).
 (2) As he deserves to be (Adv. of Degree, mod. *happy* in 1).
- F. (1) He speaks French so quickly (Principal).
 (2) That I cannot understand him (Adv. of Degree, mod. *quickly* in 1).

NOTES.—(1) Be careful to keep the word modified in the Principal sentence: e.g. in F, do not separate the Subordinate Sentence as: so quickly that I cannot understand him.

(2) The words most commonly introducing Adverbial Clauses are the Adverbial Conjunctions.

190. ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES—We frequently meet with sentences in which there are several clauses, parts of which are omitted. These are called **elliptical** or **contracted** sentences.

Examples: A. He neither can nor will come (*come* and *he* omitted).

B. He is taller than I (*am tall* omitted).

Such sentences should generally be analysed into clauses with the omitted words supplied in brackets, thus:—

A. (1) He neither can [come]
 (2) Nor will [he] come } Principal co-ordinate clauses.

B. (1) He is taller (Principal).

(2) Than I [am tall] (Adv. of Comparison, mod. *taller* in 1).

When sentences are extremely elliptical, there is often a doubt as to what should be supplied, or indeed whether anything at all need be supplied.

Consider the sentence: C. He writes quickly but accurately.

Here the words *he writes* need not be supplied before *accurately*: the whole may be taken as a simple sentence. It is only in cases where words in the sentence would find no grammatical place in the analysis that any addition may be made. For instance, in sentence B the Pronoun *I* is evidently a Subject to some Verb which does not appear, and which should therefore be supplied.

It is a safe rule that a Predicate should be seldom supplied, and both Subject and Predicate very rarely indeed.

191. ANALYSIS of a complicated passage into CLAUSES—
 “When Cæsar *saw* that the hill on which the enemy *were encamped* was well *fortified* and *could not easily be taken* by storm *he decided to starve them into submission.*”

First of all, we pick out the Finite Verbs. They are : *saw, were encamped, was fortified, could be taken, decided*. There will therefore be *five* clauses.

Next, we separate out these five clauses, and find which of them is the Principal Clause. If we read the passage carefully, we shall find one clause only which makes a main statement and could stand alone. It is:—

A. He decided to starve them into submission (Principal). The rest of the sentence, containing the other four clauses, tells us *the time at which*, or (taking when = since) *the reason why*, Cæsar *decided* thus. Hence we have:—

B. When Cæsar saw . . . by storm (Adv. of Time or Reason, mod. *decided* in A).

This sentence may be again subdivided into three, since we have two sentences describing what Cæsar *saw*:—

	(1) When Cæsar saw.
Co-ordinate	(2) That the hill . . . was well fortified (Noun Object to <i>saw</i> in B 1).
	(3) And [that it] could not be easily taken (Noun Object to <i>saw</i> in B 1).

Lastly (2) is again subdivisible since we have a clause describing *hill*:—

(a) That the hill was well fortified.

(b) On which the enemy were encamped (Adj. qualifying *hill* in a).

The above method of analysis shows the process of “dissecting” the sentence piece by piece in an admirable manner; but as it is rather complicated both to the analyser and also to the corrector of the analysis, the following briefer and clearer method is recommended:—

- (1) He decided to starve them into submission (Principal).
- (2) When Cæsar saw (Adv. of Time or Reason, mod. *decided* in 1).
- (3) That the hill was well fortified (Noun Object to *saw* in 2).
- (4) And could not easily be taken by storm (Noun Object to *saw* in 2, co-ord. with 3).
- (5) On which the enemy were encamped (Adj. qual. *hill* in 3).

192. The Analysis of each clause must be performed exactly like the analysis of a simple sentence. We suggest a combina-

tion of the line-by-line and the tabular methods for the entire analysis of a passage: the analysis into clauses to be done first as in the preceding paragraphs, and then the analysis of each clause in tabular form. We shall need an extra column for the connecting words or Links when these do not otherwise (as in the case of Relative Pronouns) find a place in the sentence.

193. EXAMPLES OF COMPLETE ANALYSES—

- I. " Since you are tongue-tied and so loath to speak,
 In dumb significant's proclaim your thoughts:
 Let him that is a true-born gentleman
 And stands upon the honour of his birth,
 If he suppose that I have pleaded truth,
 From off this brier pluck a white rose with me."
- A. In dumb significant's proclaim your thoughts (Principal).
 B. Since you are tongue-tied and so loath to speak (Adv. of Reason, mod. *proclaim* in A).
 C. Let him from off this brier pluck a white rose with me (Principal).
 D. That is a true-born gentleman (Adj. qual. *him* in C).
 E. And (that) stands upon the honour of his birth (Adj. qual. *him* in C, co-ord. with D).
 F. If he suppose (Adv. of Condition, mod. *let pluck* in C).
 G. That I have pleaded truth (Noun object to *suppose* in F).

Sentence	Link	Subject Enlargement	Predicate Complement	Object Enlargement	Extension
A.		[you]	proclaim	thoughts your	in dumb significant's (Manner)
B.	since	you	are tongue-tied and so loath to speak		
C.		[you]	let pluck	(1) him (obj. to <i>let</i>) (2) rose (obj. to <i>pluck</i>) a white	(1) from off this brier (Place) (2) with me
D.		that	is a true-born gentleman		
E.	and	[that]	stands		upon the honour of his birth
F.	if	he	suppose	[G]	
G.	that	I	have pleaded	truth	

II.

"Such a sleep

They sleep—the men I loved. I think that we
 Shall never more at any future time,
 Delight our souls with talk of knightly deeds,
 Walking about the gardens and the halls
 Of Camelot as in the days that were."

- A. Such a sleep they—the men—sleep (Principal).
 B. I loved (Adj. qual. *men* in A).
 C. I think (Principal).
 D. That we shall never more at any future time delight our souls
 with talk of knightly deeds, walking about the gardens
 and the halls of Camelot as in the days (Noun Obj. to
 think in C).
 E. That were (Adj. qual. *days* in D).

Sentence	Link	Subject Enlargement	Predicate Complement	Object Enlargement	Extension
A.		(1) They (2) men the	sleep	sleep (cognate) a, such	
B.		I	loved	[whom]	
C.		I	think	[D]	
D.	that	we walking . . . Camelot	shall delight	souls our	(1) never (Time) (2) with talk of knightly deeds (Manner) (3) as in the days (Time)
E.		that	were		

III. "He was awake long after his Arab host had performed his usual devotions, and betaken himself to his repose, nor had sleep visited him at the hour of midnight, when a movement took place among the domestics, which, though attended with no speech and very little noise, made him aware that they were loading the camels and preparing for departure."

- A. He was awake (Principal).
 B. Long after his Arab host had performed his usual devotions
 (Adv. of Time, mod. *was awake* in A).
 C. And [had] betaken himself to his repose (Adv. of Time, mod.
 was awake in A, co-ord. with B).
 D. Nor had sleep visited him at the hour of midnight (Principal,
 co-ord. with A).
 E. When a movement took place among the domestics (Adv. of
 Time, mod. *visited* in D and *was awake* in A).

- F. Which, though attended with no speech and very little noise, made him aware (Adj. qual. *movement* in E).
 G. They were loading the camels (Noun Obj. to *made aware* in F).
 H. And [were] preparing for departure (Noun Obj. to *made aware* in F, co-ord. with G).

NOTE.—In sentences C and H the words *had* and *were* (parts of the predicates) need not be supplied ; if omitted C and H form parts of B and G respectively.

The only reason why these various words are supplied in the above analysis is that the Clauses are thereby better balanced.

Sentence	Link	Subject Enlargement	Predicate Complement	Object Enlargement	Extension
A.		he	was awake		
B.	long after	host his Arab	had performed	devotions his usual	
C.	and	„	[had] betaken	himself	to his repose (Place)
D.	nor	sleep	had visited	him	at the hour of midnight (Time)
E.	when	movement a	took place		among the domestics (Place)
F.		which though attended ... noise	made aware	(1) him (2) [G and H]	
G.	[that]	they	were loading	camels the	
H.	and [that]	„	[were] preparing		for departure (Reason)

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIII.

I. Analyse fully the following Simple Sentences :—

- (1) A victory over the defenceless is neither great nor memorable.
- (2) Desperate diseases are by desperate remedies cured.
- (3) Much learning hath made thee mad.
- (4) Fight the good fight with all thy might.
- (5) Above all things to thine own self be true.
- (6) He doth bestride the narrow world like a Colossus.
- (7) Most musical of mourners, weep anew.

- (8) Now must your conscience my acquittance seal.
 (9) Golden boys and girls all must,
 Like chimney sweepers, come to dust.
 (10) What tributaries follow him to Rome
 To grace with captive bonds his chariot wheels ?
 (11) In the commonwealth I would by contraries
 Execute all things.
 (12) Him the Almighty Power
 Hurl'd headlong flaming from the ethereal sky.
 (13) Let not Ambition mock their useful toil,
 Their homely joys, and destiny obscure.
 (14) Unwillingly himself he addressed
 To do his master's high behest.
 (15) Thee, Father, first they sang, Omnipotent.
 (16) All day she spun in her poor dwelling.
 (17) Three poets, in three distant ages born,
 Greece, Italy, and England did adorn.
 (18) The old order changeth, yielding place to new.
 (19) Her smile, her speech, with winning way
 Wiled the old harper's mood away.
 (20) Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
 The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.
 (21) Outside her kennel the mastiff old
 Lay fast asleep, in moonshine cold.
 (22) He nothing common did or mean,
 Upon that memorable scene.
 (23) Searching the window for a flint, I found
 This paper thus sealed up.
 (24) I heard a stock-dove sing or say
 His homely tale this very day.
 (25) The Muses, still with freedom found
 Shall to thy happy coast repair.
2. Define, giving examples, a simple sentence, a complex sentence, and a compound sentence. (M)
3. Define a sentence, a phrase, and a clause, and give examples of each. (M)
4. What is the use of Analysis of sentences ? What shapes may the subject assume, and in what ways may it be enlarged ? (M)
5. Pick out the Principal and Noun clauses in the following sentences, and state their relationship as in § 187 :—
- (1) He did not hear what I said.
 (2) Whether you saw it or not is uncertain.
 (3) They hope you will visit them shortly.
 (4) That was how he understood it.
 (5) He has nothing but what his father left him.
 (6) I allowed him to do whatever he liked.
 (7) What he means by such conduct, I cannot imagine.
 (8) The proverb "Honesty is the best policy" has often been verified.
6. Substitute Noun Clauses for the Nouns or Noun-equivalents italicised in the following :—
- (1) He has written to tell us *the time of his arrival*.
 (2) Your friend has given us an account of *your deeds in India*.

(3) *His opinion on the matter* is very vague.

(4) This is *your error*.

(5) He saw *the meaning of the passage* clearly.

7. Pick out the Principal and Adjectival Clauses in the following sentences and state their relationship as in § 188 :—

(1) I have mislaid the book you lent me.

(2) The place whereon thou standest is holy ground.

(3) Make friends only with such as are honest.

(4) The soldier whom you saw is a general.

(5) Six o'clock is the time when the train arrives.

(6) He takes all he can get.

8. Substitute Adjectival Clauses for the Adjectives or Adjectival equivalents italicised in the following :—

(1) There is a *coal* mine near here.

(2) This is a *memorable* occasion.

(3) The soldiers *fighting under Cæsar* took the town.

(4) The citizens *of that town* refused to surrender.

9. Pick out the Principal and Adverbial Clauses in the following sentences and state their relationship, as in § 189 :—

(1) When I arrived at the station, the train was just starting.

(2) I left early because I had finished my work.

(3) If you tell him the truth, he will forgive you.

(4) I will go wherever you wish.

(5) He has done his work as well as could be expected.

(6) Antony was a greater orator than Brutus was.

(7) Since you know everything, what is the use of my saying more ?

10. Substitute Adverbial Clauses for the Adverbs or Adverbial equivalents italicised in the following :—

(1) *Having made up his mind*, he went to London.

(2) They arrived *on the scene at sunset*.

(3) He walked as quickly *as possible*.

(4) *School being finished*, he returned home.

11. Analyse into Clauses stating their relationships to one another :—

(1) He determined that he would pass the examination.

(2) They were so tired that they went straight to bed.

(3) I know the man you are talking about.

(4) Those who wish to play cricket may now leave.

(5) The rose, if it were called by any other name, would smell as sweet.

(6) What you say is perfectly true.

(7) He looked scornfully at me and walked away.

(8) Wherever you are, do not forget to act like a gentleman.

(9) He understands how to do his work, but is too lazy to do it well.

(10) The house in which I live is very small.

(11) I do not suppose that they will come until they receive an invitation.

(12) I have obtained the book that he wants and shall send it to him to-day.

(13) Unless you hear from me, take it for granted that I shall be at home.

(14) None but those who have studied the subject know how difficult it is.

(15) He tried for a long time before he succeeded in giving satisfaction.

(16) There were some standing there who insisted that he was a traitor.

12. Enlarge the sentence, *Tyrrell shot Rufus*, by additions (1) to the Subject, of (a) a Participial Phrase, and (b) an Adjectival Clause; (2) to the Predicate, of (a) an adverbial sentence of time, and (b) an adverbial phrase of place; and (3) to the Object, of a Noun in apposition. Distinguish each adjunct by its appropriate term, or by the marks 1 (a), 1 (b), etc. (M)

13. Distinguish between a *phrase*, a *clause*, and a *sentence*; also between *co-ordinate clauses* and *subordinate clauses*. Give examples. Enlarge and complete the unfinished sentence, *The sailor told me*, so that it may become a complex sentence containing (i) a Noun in apposition to the subject, (ii) an Adjectival Clause, (iii) a Substantival Clause, (iv) an Adverbial Clause of Time, (v) an Adverbial Clause of Purpose.

14. Show by examples that the sentence, *Where he is living now*, can be used as a subordinate substantival, adjectival, or adverbial clause.

15. Construct a complex sentence containing: (1) An adverbial clause of time, (2) An objective and infinitive, (3) an adjectival phrase, (4) A nominative absolute, (5) an objective complement, (6) a cognate object. Point out which each is. (M)

16. Write a sentence containing three extensions of the predicate, one of them a clause, and let this clause contain a subject with two enlargements. (M)

17. Make up a Complex Sentence containing Clauses in the following order: (1) an Adverbial of Time, (2) a Principal, (3) an Adjectival.

18. Make up a Complex Sentence containing Clauses in the following order: (1) a Principal, (2) a Noun, (3) an Adjectival.

19. Analyse fully the following passages:—

(1) As my eldest son was bred a scholar, I determined to send him to town, where his abilities might contribute to his support and our own.

(2) The page thereupon engaged him fiercely, and Robin found that he had many little tricks at fencing.

(3) She loved me for the dangers I had passed,
And I loved her for she did pity me.

(4) The dog and man at first were friends,
But when a pique began
The dog, to gain some private ends,
Went mad and bit the man.

(5) In the midst of their conference, they were interrupted by a movement among the people, and soon afterwards five men entered the great square or market-place where they were standing.

(6) He who fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.

(7) Know, if you killed me for my fault, I should
Have died had I not made it.

(8) I shall begin with that which, though the least in consequence, makes perhaps the most impression on our senses, because it meets our eyes in our daily walks.

- (9) There is no branch of human work whose constant laws have not close analogy with those which govern every other mode of man's exertion.
- (10) History, in the true sense, he does not and cannot write, for he looks on mankind as a herd without volition and without moral force; but such vivid pictures of events, such living conceptions of character, we find nowhere else in prose.
- (11) With fairest flowers
While summer lasts and I live here, Fidele,
I'll sweeten thy sad grave.
- (12) Men whisper that our arm is weak;
Men say our blood runs cold.
- (13) There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Rough-hew them how we may.
- (14) By this time the gates were open, but before the victors broke in, the Gauls fled from the city in all directions.
- (15) "What need is there," said he, "to fight, when the matter can be settled by arbitration."
- (16) Even now methinks, as pondering here I stand,
I see the rural virtues leave the land.
- (17) She has heard a whisper say,
A curse is on her if she stay
To look down on Camelot.
- (18) Then send for unrelenting Mortimer,
And Isabel, whose eyes, being turned to steel,
Will sooner sparkle fire than shed a tear.

20. Analyse:—

- (1) Whether (says Plutarch) he was the particular care of some god, who rewarded his valour that day with an extraordinary protection, or that his enemies, struck with the unusualness of his dress and beauty of his shape, supposed him something more than man, I shall not determine.
- (2) He was careful not to betray to his host the fact that he was bored, but as he strode along, his heavy boots clogged with mud, he was thinking deeply of a curious incident that had occurred half an hour before, while they were lunching up at the farm.
- (3) The warriors arose from their place of brief rest and simple refreshment, and courteously aided each other while they carefully replaced and adjusted the harness, from which they had relieved for the time their trusty steeds.
- (4) When Henry the Eighth attempted to raise a forced loan of unusual amount by proceedings of unusual vigour, the opposition which he encountered was such as appalled even his stubborn and imperious spirit.
- (5) Certainly, if a man weigh it rightly, he that doth so is rather liberal of another man's than of his own.
- (6) That Milton chose well, no man can doubt who fairly compares the events of the Protectorate with those of the thirty years which succeeded it, the darkest and most disgraceful in the English annals.
- (7) A step was taken this session which was important in as far

as it tended to separate the idea of death-punishment from crimes which were no longer capital. (M)

- (8) The world beheld with astonishment two princes, whose rival pretensions had for so many years distracted Europe with divisions and deluged it with blood, now suddenly bound together by the closest ties of alliance. (M)
- (9) In the olden days, in which distance could not be vanquished without toil, but in which toil was rewarded, there were few moments of which the recollection was more fondly cherished by the traveller than that which brought him within sight of Venice.

21. Analyse:—

- (1) Let's dry our eyes ; and thus far hear me, Cromwell
And when I am forgotten, as I shall be,
And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention
Of me more must be heard of, say, I taught thee.
Say Wolsey that once trod the ways of glory
And sounded all the depths and shoals of honour
Found thee a way out of his wreck to rise in.

- (2) And if King Edward be as true and just
As I am subtle, false, and treacherous
This day should Clarence closely be mewed up,
About a prophecy which says that G
Of Edward's heirs the murderer shall be. (M)

- (3) If all was good and fair we met
This earth had been the Paradise
It never looked to human eyes
Since Adam left his garden yet. (M)

- (4) But where the path we walked began
To slant the fifth autumnal slope
As we descended following Hope
There sat the shadow feared of man. (M)

- (5) 'Tis a common proof
That lowliness is young ambition's ladder,
Whereto the climber-upward turns his face ;
But when he once attains the utmost round,
He then unto the ladder turns his back,
Looks in the clouds, scorning the base degrees
By which he did ascend. (M)

- (6) As waggish boys in games themselves forswear,
So the boy love is perjured everywhere :
For ere Demetrius looked on Hermia's eyne,
He hailed down oaths that he was only mine. (M)

- (7) And ever against eating cares
Lap me in soft Lydian airs,

Such as the meeting soul may pierce
 In notes with many a winding-bout
 Of linked sweetness long drawn out. (M)

- (8) It little profits that an idle king
 Matched with an aged wife, I mete and dole
 Unequal laws unto a savage race
 That house, and sleep, and feed, and know not me. (M)

- (9) What thou art we know not ;
 What is most like thee ?
 From rainbow clouds there flow not
 Drops so bright to see
 As from thy presence showers a rain of melody. (M)

- (10) Of man's first disobedience and the fruit
 Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
 Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
 With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
 Restore us, and regain the blissful seat
 Sing, Heavenly Muse. (M)

22. Of what two parts does every clause consist? How does a sentence differ from a clause? Supply what is needed to complete each imperfectly expressed sentence or clause in the following expressions:—(i) Thank you. (ii) Please come at once. (iii) Good-day! (iv) At your service, Sir! (v) Woe unto you! (vi) He was as gay as a lark. (vii) Who is here so vile that will not love his country? None, Brutus, none.

CHAPTER XIV

PARSING

194. **P**ARSING is an exercise by means of which we make a kind of synopsis of the grammar of any word in its relation to the rest of the sentence; it thus has to do both with Accidence and with Syntax.

Parsing is closely bound up with Analysis, which deals with the elements of a sentence and their mutual relationship. Perhaps the difference between the two processes may be illustrated by an analogy from Chemistry. Analysis of sentences corresponds to the process of the analysis of a chemical compound into its elements: parsing to the description of the properties and reactions of each of those elements when separated.

195. Since part of the work of parsing is the establishment of the relationship of the various words of a sentence, it must be preceded by analysis—at least by the analysis of the simple sentence. Indeed, it is necessary to analyse the given sentence, at all events mentally, before attempting to parse a word in it. Parsing must also, naturally, be preceded by a knowledge of Accidence and Syntax.

196. The most elementary form of parsing consists in naming the Parts of Speech of the various words given (Chap. iii.). The whole sentence in which the word exists must be known before even this part of parsing can be accomplished, for, as has been frequently indicated in the preceding chapters, a word may often be two or more parts of speech according to its use.

To illustrate this important point still further, we give a few instances :—

- After.** *After* him, Jack ! (Prep. used as a Verb).
 He came *after* I had left (Conj.).
 He will speak *after* me (Prep.).
 We look before and *after* (Adverb).
 They talked of the *after* life (Adj.).
- But.** None *but* the brave deserves the fair (Prep.).
 They ran *but* lost the train (Conj.).
 He is *but* a little child (Adv.).
 There is none *but* loves him (Conj. equivalent to Relative + Negative).
- All.** *All* men are mortal (Adj.).
All were present to hear him (Pron.).
 He lost his *all* (Noun).
- Light.** The *light* burns dimly (Noun).
Light those candles (Verb).
 This room is *light* (Adj.).
- No.** *No* man has seen him (Adj.).
 He is *no* better (Adv. of Degree).
 Did you speak ? *No.* (Substitute Adverb).
- That.** *That* is my book (Demonstrative Pron.).
That dog is mine (Demonstrative Adj.).
 The book *that* you want is here (Relative Pron.).
 I thought *that* you had gone (Conj.).

197. HOW TO PARSE—We shall now consider the various statements that have to be made concerning the different Parts of Speech. They are such as have been treated in the foregoing chapters.

The following exhibits the general scheme of Parsing :—

Nouns (see Chap. v.).

(1) *Kind* : Proper, Common (Collective, Multitude, Material), Abstract (Verbal).

(2) *Gender* : Masculine, Feminine, Common, Neuter.

(3) *Number* : Singular, Plural.

(4) *Case* : Nominative, Objective (Dative), Possessive.

(5) <i>Reason for Case</i> :	{	if Nom. : Subject, Complement, Apposition, Address, Absolute.
		if Obj. : Object, gov. by Prep., Complement, Apposition, Adverbial.
		if Poss. : qualifying what Noun.

Example : “ *John's parents are in the garden.* ”

John's : Noun, Proper, Masc., Sing., Possess. qual. *parents*.

Parents : Noun, Common, Com. Gender, Plur., Nom., subject to *are*.

Garden : Noun, Common, Neut., Sing., Obj., gov. by *in*.

Verbs (see Chap. vi.).

(1) *Kind*: Transitive, Intransitive, Incomplete (Auxiliary, Semi-Auxiliary, Copulative).

(2) *Conjugation*: Strong, Weak.

(3) *Voice*: Active, Passive.

(4) *Mood*: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, Infinitive.

(5) *Tense*: Present, Past, Future, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect. Simple or Continuous form.

(6) *Number*: Singular, Plural.

(7) *Person*: First, Second, Third.

(8) *Agreement*: With Subject.

Example: "They *heard* what *was said* and then *went* away."

Heard: Verb, Trans., Weak, Act., Indic., Past, 3rd Plur., agreeing with Subj. *they*.

Was said: Verb, Trans., Weak, Passive, Indic., Past, 3rd Sing., agreeing with Subj. *what*.

Went: Verb, Intrans., Anomalous, Act. Indic., Past, 3rd Plur., agreeing with Subj. *they* (*understood*).

Pronouns (see Chap. vii.).

(1) *Kind*: Personal (Reflexive), Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, Indefinite.

(2) *Gender*: Masculine, Feminine, Common, Neuter.

(3) *Person*: First, Second, Third.

(4) *Number*: Singular, Plural.

(5) *Case*: Nominative, Objective (Dative), Possessive.

(6) *Reason for Case* (as for Nouns).

Example: "Those *whom* he addressed said that the fault was *theirs*."

Those: Pronoun, Dem., Common, 3rd Plur., Nom., Subject to *said*.

Whom: Pronoun, Rel., Common, 3rd Plural, Obj., gov. by *addressed*, antecedent *those*.

He: Pronoun, Personal, Masc., 3rd Sing., Nom., Subj. to *addressed*.

Theirs: Pronoun, Personal, Common, 3rd Plur., Possess., complement to *was*.

Adjectives (see Chap. viii.).

(1) *Kind*: Qualitative, Possessive, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, Numeral, Indefinite.

(2) *Degree* (where necessary): Positive, Comparative, Superlative.

(3) *Relationship*: Qualifying Noun or Pronoun, Predicative use as Complement to Verb.

Example : " *That* book was *the best* in *his* library."

That : Adj., Demons., qual. *book*.

The : Adj., Demons. (Definite Article), qual. *book*.

Best : Adj., Qual., Superl., qual. *book*, Predic. use, Comp. to *was*.

His : Adj., Possess., qual. *library*.

Adverbs (see Chap. ix.).

(1) *Kind* : Time, Place, Manner, Degree, Reason.

(2) *Degree* (where necessary) : As for Adjectives.

(3) *Relationship* : Modifying Verb, Adj., Adv., etc.

Example : " *Fortunately* they went *away almost immediately*."

Fortunately : Adv. of Manner, Absolute Use, mod. whole sentence.

Away : Adv. of Place, mod. *went*.

Almost : Adv. of Degree, mod. *immediately*.

Immediately : Adv. of Time, mod. *went*.

Prepositions (see Chap. x.).

Relationship : Word governed.

Example : " He was sitting *on* a chair *in* his study."

On : Prep. governing *chair*.

In : Prep. governing *study*.

Conjunctions (see Chap. xi.).

(1) *Kind* : Co-ordinate, Subordinate.

(2) *Relationship* : Joining what words or sentences.

Example : " They came here *but* went away *when* they had finished work."

But : Conj., Co-ord., joining *They came here* and *went . . . work*.

When : Conj., Subord., Adv., joining *went away* and *they . . . work*.

Interjections—No remarks.

198. NOTES ON PARSING—

(1) In parsing a word it is often necessary, in addition to the information given according to the above scheme, to make some additional remarks applicable to the particular instance at hand. The following are a few of the extra details that should be given :—

(a) The Person of a Noun, if exceptionally 1st or 2nd (§ 108).

(b) The use of a Proper Noun as Common, etc.

(c) The Anomaly or Defectiveness of certain Verbs.

(d) The agreement of a Relative Pronoun with its Antecedent.

(e) The Predicative use of an Adjective or Adverb, and the Interrogative and Absolute uses of Adverbs.

(2) Each part of a composite Verb should be parsed separately and then as a whole.

Example : He *has been giving*.

has : Indic. Pres., 3rd Sing. of *have*.

been : Past Part. of *be*.

giving : Gerund of *give*.

has been giving : Verb Trans., Strong, Act., Indic., Perfect, Continuous, 3rd Sing., agreeing with subject *he*.

(3) A Phrase equivalent to a Preposition, Conjunction, etc., should be parsed word by word, and then the equivalence should be stated.

(4) The Infinitive Mood requires special consideration. Of the *Infinitive Proper* the following should be mentioned :—

(a) *Voice* : Active, Passive.

(b) *Tense* : Present, Perfect.

(c) *Use* : as Noun (Subject, etc.), as Adj. (qual. Noun, etc.), as Adv. (mod. Verb, etc.), Absolute.

Example : “I came *to tell* you this.”

To tell : Verb, Infin., Act., Pres., Adv. use, mod. *came*.

Of the *Gerund* the following should be stated :—

(a) *Tense* : Present, Perfect.

(b) *Relationship* : Subj. or Obj. to Verb, gov. by Prep., governing what object.

Example : “He was fond of *studying* English.”

Studying : Verb, Inf., Gerund, Pres., gov. by Prep. *of*, gov. *English*.

199. Examples of Parsing.

(a) “Tell me not in mournful numbers
Life is but an empty dream.”

Tell : Verb, Trans., Weak, Act., Imper., Pres., 2nd Sing. or Plural, agreeing with subject *you (thou)* understood.

Me : Pronoun, Pers., Com., Sing., 1st, Dat., indirect obj. to *tell*.

Not : Adv., Degree, mod. *tell*.

In : Prep. gov. *numbers*.

Mournful : Adj., Qual., qualifying numbers.

Numbers : Noun, Com., Neut., Plur., Obj. gov. by *in*.

Life : Noun, Com., Neut., Sing, Nom., subj. to *is*.

Is : Verb, Copul., Anom., Indic., Pres., 3rd Sing., agreeing with subj. *life*.

But : Adv., Manner, mod. *is*.

An : Adj., Demons., Indef. Article, qual. *dream*.

Empty : Adj., Qual., qualifying *dream*.

Dream : Noun, Com., Neut., Sing., Nom., compl. to *is*.

(b) " Oh ! weep for Adonais, though our tears

Thaw not the frost which binds so dear a head ! "

Oh : Interjection.

Weep : Verb, Intrans., Weak, Act., Imper., Pres., 2nd Sing. or Plur., agreeing with subj. *you* (or *thou*) understood.

For : Prep. gov. *Adonais*.

Adonais : Noun, Proper, Masc., Sing., Obj. gov. by *for*.

Though : Conj., Subord., joining *weep . . . Adonais* to *our . . . head*.

Our : Adj., Possess., qual. *tears*.

Tears : Noun, Common, Neut., Plur., Nom. subj. to *thaw*.

Thaw : Verb, Trans., Weak, Act, Subj., (or Indic.), 3rd Plur., agreeing with subj. *tears*.

Not : Adv. Degree mod. *thaw*.

The : Adj., Demons., Def. Article, qual. *frost*.

Frost : Noun, Common, Neut., Sing., Obj., object to *thaw*.

Which : Pronoun, Rel., Neut., Nom., Subject to *binds* agreeing with Antec. *frost*.

*Bind*s : Verb, Trans., Strong, Act., Indic., Pres., 3rd Sing. agreeing with subj. *which*.

So : Adv., Degree mod. *dear*.

Dear : Adj., Qual., qualifying *head*.

A : Adj., Demons., Indef. Article., qual. *head*.

Head : Noun, Common, Neut., Sing., Obj., object to *binds*.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIV.

1. Parse each word in the following :—

- (1) Drink to me only with thine eyes.
- (2) There's none like pretty Sally.
- (3) Just for a handful of silver he left us.
- (4) Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone.
- (5) Earth fills her lap with pleasures of her own.
- (6) It's dull in our town since my playmates left.
- (7) So Love was crowned but Music won the cause.
- (8) Alas ! they had been friends from youth.

2. Discuss the syntax of the words italicised in the following :—

- (1) He died *last week*.
- (2) He died *a poor man*.
- (3) He died *a violent death*.
- (4) They made him *king*.
- (5) The evenings were growing *dark*.
- (6) So much *the* better. (M)

3. Parse the words italicised in the following :—

- (1) *After eating* apples he fell ill.
- (2) *While eating* apples he fell ill.
- (3) The *eating* of apples made him ill.
- (4) *Cooking* apples are not good for eating.
- (5) On *receiving* orders to leave the town, he asked *for a time* table, *as* he wished to find out *when* the next train started.

4. Form sentences showing each of the words *hope*, *in*, *which*, *for*, *show*, *only*, *fast*, *his* as two different parts of speech, and distinguish between them in each case.

5. Discuss the syntax of the words and phrases italicised in :—

- (1) He read the *volume's* pages *through and through*.
- (2) He was beheaded—a *punishment* fit for a traitor !
- (3) They abandoned the camp, *baggage and all*.
- (4) *Have I to go there ?* Yes, I think so.
- (5) He died a *martyr's death* and left us *his memory as an example*.
- (6) It is supposed that he went *on board* the ship.

6. Parse all the words in *-ing* in the sentence : Darkling, we went singing on our way, with our walking sticks in our hands, weary of toiling in the town. (M)

7. How are words grouped according to their grammatical usage ? In which group or groups do you place *than, but, divine, single, that, while* ? Give reasons.

8. Discuss the syntax of the words and phrases italicised in :—

- (1) Get *you* gone !
- (2) *Down* with it !
- (3) *Let* knowledge grow from *more to more*.
- (4) For every *why*, he had a *wherefore*.
- (5) He that hath ears *to hear*, let him *hear*.
- (6) I think *it* right to say.
- (7) It will last for *ever*.
- (8) Let me see *you do* that again.
- (9) I would be *friends* with you.
- (10) They spent *four weeks* at Karlsbad, *which* is one of the most popular *health* resorts in Europe.
- (11) *You*, sir, what *trade* are you ?
- (12) The whole thing, *lock, stock and barrel*, isn't worth one big yellow *sea-poppy*. (M)

9. Analyse into clauses, stating the relationship between them, and parse the words in italics in the following :—

- (1) I have heard *tell* and can esteem it true
How that an eagle *looking on* the sun,
Rejoicing for his part
And bringing oft his *young* to look there *too*,
If one *gaze* longer *than* another one,
On him will set his heart,
- (2) *Tired nature's* sweet restorer, balmy sleep,
He like the world his ready *visit* pays
Where fortune *smiles* ; the *wretched* he forsakes :
Swift on his downy pinion flies from woe
And *lights* on lids *unsullied* with a tear.
- (3) *Since* first I saw thee come and heard thy cry,
I could not rid me of the dread *that* one
By *whom* such daring villanies were done
Must be some lord of *mine*—ay, e'en perhaps a soul.
Whoe'er he was I *knew* my task ; but feared
A father's heart in case the *worst* appeared.
- (4) Truths, on which *depends* our main concern,
That 'tis our shame and misery not to learn,
Shine by the side of *every* path we tread.
With such a lustre he *that* runs *may read*.

10. Discuss the grammatical uses of the words *what*, *nothing*, *both*, in the following :—

- (1) I'll tell you *what* ; we will go and see him.
- (2) *What* news have you brought ?
- (3) *What* with one thing and *what* with another.
- (4) *Nothing* good can come of that.
- (5) *Both* my friends saw it.
- (6) We were *both* of us present.
- (7) *Both* the two cities were Roman colonies.
- (8) *Both* the king and the queen spoke.
- (9) The name set *both* our thoughts anxiously wandering.

11. Discuss the case of each word in *italics* in the following sentences :

(i) They love *each other*. (ii) What *age* is he ? (iii) He acted in his capacity as a *judge*. (iv) The wind blew in the *bride* and bridegroom's faces. (v) Who is he *That* every man in arms should wish to be ? (vi) One *whom* all the world knew was so wronged. (vii) The note was then handed to the officer, and the case proceeded without *it* being read. (viii) It shall come to pass, that the *man* whom I shall choose, his rod shall bud.

12. Comment on anything noteworthy in the syntax of the italicised words in :—

(i) *The* more *the* better. (ii) *Both* in appearance and character, they were alike. (iii) The French press *know* little of the actual facts. (iv) The earth *is* the Lord's and the fulness thereof. (v) Every limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace. (vi) I thought *it* best to remain. (vii) You *had* better go. (viii) *Do* be still.

13. Explain carefully what there is of a special character in each of the following examples of the genitive case :—

(i) He dined at my father's. (ii) A friend of my father's. (iii) *That* father of mine. (iv) From my father and grandfather's time. (v) For long acquaintance sake. (vi) December's snow. (vii) A hair's breadth. (viii) A baker's dozen. (ix) For God's love. (x) Scio's rocky isle.

14. Comment on the grammar or construction of the italicised words and phrases in :—

- (1) *Thine*, *Gawain*, was the voice.
- (2) *Methought* I saw my *late espoused* saint.
- (3) Then was she chosen *abbess* : there an *abbess* lived.
- (4) He commanded the sea *to be scourged*.
- (5) When, *doffed his casque*, he felt free air,
Around gan Marmion wildly *stare*.
- (6) Now, *good my liege* and brother *sage*,
What think ye of *mine elfin* page ?

CHAPTER XV

ERRORS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

200. **I**N order to speak and to write English correctly, it is necessary to guard against many errors which constantly occur in the conversation we hear around us, and in the newspapers and books we read. It may be pointed out that nothing ensures correctness in writing more than correctness in speaking. The student should therefore make it his aim to speak carefully and correctly and to avoid the mistakes, due largely to ignorance or carelessness, which will be discussed in this and subsequent chapters.

201. **ERRORS.** Such mistakes are chiefly twofold :—

(1) **Errors in Grammar** which involve a violation of the rules and principles of grammar.

(2) **Errors in Style**, which include such mistakes as are connected with the order of words in a sentence, ambiguity of expression, use of words in an incorrect sense, slang, etc.

NOTE.—In **poetry**, a great deal of licence is allowed both in grammar and style. Many phrases and constructions, therefore, which occur in poetry are, strictly speaking, erroneous and must be avoided in ordinary composition and conversation. If such sentences are offered for criticism, they must be discussed and corrected according to the standard of modern prose.

202. In this chapter we shall confine ourselves to the consideration of some common errors, due, for the most part, to a violation of grammar. It will be convenient in the course of our treatment to recapitulate some of the Rules of Syntax already given in the earlier chapters of this book, and to add a few others. Reference will be added, wherever possible, to the paragraph dealing with the grammar in question.

In correcting faulty sentences, the student should take care

not to make *unnecessary* alterations ; the least change is always the best.

203. CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE (§ 108)

—The Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person :—

Thou who *has* created all things *will* be merciful (incorrect person).

The study of ancient relics *are* interesting (incorrect number).

The following additional rules should be noted :—

(1) Two or more subjects coupled by **and** take a plural :—

Is Bushy, Green and the Earl of Wiltshire dead ? (incorrect).

Except when the subjects together express one idea, or when they are almost synonymous :—

Milk and soda *is* a refreshing drink (correct).

Wherein *doth* sit the fear and dread of kings (allowable).

(2) When two subjects are connected by **or**, **nor**, the Verb agrees with the *nearer one* (§ 165) :—

Either he or I *are* wrong (incorrect).

(3) A Plural denoting *a single object* naturally takes a singular verb :—

The United States *have* an army (incorrect).

(4) Subjects used **distributively** take a singular (§ 130) :—

Every man, woman and child *understand* it (incorrect).

Many a person *make* this mistake (incorrect).

(5) When two subjects are connected by the conjunctive phrase **as well as**, the Verb agrees with the *first* (§ 167).

Similarly also when a subject is connected by a Preposition to a Noun, the Verb agrees, of course, with the subject only :—

This man, as well as you, *deserve* punishment (incorrect).

The house with all its furniture *were* wrecked (incorrect).

204. THE COMPLEMENT after a Verb must be of the same case as the word before the Verb (§ 77) :—

I know that man to be *him* (correct).

It is *me* (incorrect).

The latter error is so common (particularly in conversation) that it is often said to be “sanctioned by usage” ; it is sometimes also defended on the analogy of the French *c'est moi*, from which it probably arose. [See also § 247 (3).]

205. THE OBJECTIVE is governed by a Verb (§ 76):—

Leave James and *I* to do the work (incorrect).

They did not see you and *I* (incorrect).

Beware especially of *who* (Nom.) for *whom* (Obj.) and *vice versa*—a very common error:—

Someone told me, I forget *whom* (incorrect).

Who does the book describe? (incorrect).

The Objective is governed by a Preposition (§ 155):—

Between you and *I* there is something wrong here (incorrect).

Who is the book written by? (incorrect).

USE OF THE POSSESSIVE (§ 81):—

The number of the book's pages is 74 (incorrect; say "The pages of the book").

Use of the Apostrophe for the Possessive (§ 80):—

These are the *mens'* books (incorrect).

I remain, *Your's* sincerely (incorrect).

206. A NOUN used in the Collective sense must not afterwards be used as if it were a Noun of Multitude, *i.e.* with a Plural Verb:—

The crowd is fickle; *they are* utterly inconsistent (incorrect).

207. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN agrees with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but takes its Case from its own clause (§ 127). If there are two possible antecedents, the Pronoun agrees with the nearer:—

He is one of those men who *causes* all the trouble (incorrect).

Distinction between *that* and *who*, which:—

They saw Mr Jones *that* received them graciously (incorrect).

After Distributives [§ 130 and 203 (4)] a Verb, Pronoun, or Possessive Adjective must be singular:—

Every man to *their* taste (incorrect).

If anyone comes, let *them* wait (incorrect).

Strictly speaking, the latter sentence should be: ". . . let *him* or *her* wait"; but "let *him* wait" suffices.

Either, Neither must be used of two things only (§ 130, note):—

Either of the four will suit us (incorrect).

Any, Other cannot be used with superlatives :—

The largest circulation of *any* daily paper (incorrect). /

Of all *other* poets he was the greatest (incorrect).

Use of Another, each other, one another (§ 130) :—

They were all talking to *each other* (incorrect).

Each of the boys was as clever as *another* (incorrect).

One must be followed by *one's*, not by *his* :—

One must not forget *his* duty to *his* country (incorrect).

Distinction between *few* and *a few*, *little* and *a little*. **Few** has a negative idea : e.g. “few were saved,” conveys the idea that most were lost.

This is such a difficult subject that *a few* can understand it (incorrect).

Little money goes a long way (incorrect).

208. **DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES** agree with the Noun they qualify in number (§ 142) :—

I do not like *those* kind of men (incorrect).

Double Comparative or Superlative is inadmissible (§ 140),

He is *more dearer* to me than you are (incorrect).

Superlative for Comparative is inadmissible (§ 137).

Of two evils choose the *least* (incorrect).

Some Adjectives cannot be compared (§ 141).

The *most unique* specimen has been discovered (incorrect).

209. **USE OF TENSES** (§ 105).

I *have gone* to London yesterday (incorrect).

I *was* here ten days when you came (incorrect).

I hoped *to have answered* his letter yesterday (sanctioned by usage).

Past Tense for Past Participle, and *vice versa* is inadmissible.

He has *drank* some wine (incorrect).

Sequence of Tenses (§ 106).

He wished that you *will* speak to him (incorrect).

They were eating and *read* at the same time (incorrect).

Confusion of Shall and Will (§ 117, IV.).

I *will* be glad to see you to-morrow (incorrect).

They *shall* see you in a few days (incorrect, if *future only*).

Unrelated Participle (§ 103).

Having written the book, it was burnt (incorrect).

Gerund used as though it were a Participle (§ 103).

I have not heard of *him learning* music (incorrect).

210. ADVERB FOR ADJECTIVE, and *vice versa*, is inadmissible, except in special cases (§ 143).

Thou couldst not die more *honourable* (incorrect).

Good gentlemen, look fresh and *merrily* (incorrect).

Distinction between No and Not.

Have you ever seen him or *no*? (incorrect).

Double negative is inadmissible (§ 150).

Nobody *never* thinks *nothing* of such people (incorrect).

211. USE OF CERTAIN PREPOSITIONS AS CONJUNCTIONS and *vice versa* (§ 159).

I shall stay here *without* you send for me (incorrect).

Do not do it *like* he says (incorrect).

He is taller *than* me (incorrect).

Use of the Wrong Preposition after certain words (§ 161).

This is different *to* that (incorrect)

Wrong Correlatives (§ 165):

He would neither work *or* play (incorrect).

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XV.

1. Write out correctly all the incorrect sentences given in this chapter.

2. Correct or justify the following, giving reasons:—

- (1) Who do you speak to?
- (2) It was thought to be him.
- (3) Whether or no I am right, you are certainly wrong.
- (4) Art thou proud yet? Ay, that I am not thee.
- (5) Whoever the king favours the cardinal will find employment for.
- (6) Nothing but wailings was heard.
- (7) Neither of them are remarkable for precision.
- (8) It must be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery and murder.
- (9) Thersites' body is as good as Ajax when neither are alive.
- (10) I like it better than any.
- (11) And since I never dare to write as funny as I can.
- (12) Laying the suspicion on somebody, I know not who, in the country.

- (13) Well is him that hath found prudence !
- (14) I am one of those who cannot describe what I do not see.
- (15) Nobody ever put so much of themselves into their work.
- (16) Nepos answered him, Celsus replied, and neither of them were sparing of censures on each other.
- (17) The boy stood on the burning deck
Whence all but he had fled.
- (18) The largest circulation of any Liberal newspaper.
- (19) If I were old enough to be married, I am old enough to manage my husband's house.
- (20) I heard of him running away.
- (21) The threatened assault was met by Buckingham by a counter attack on the Earl of Bristol, whom he knew would be the chief witness against him.
- (22) And many a holy text around she strews
That teach the rustic moralist to die.
- (23) This view has been maintained by one of the greatest writers that has appeared in this country.
- (24) The administration of so many various interests, and of districts so remote, demand no common capacity and vigour.
- (25) When distress and anguish cometh upon you.
- (26) It has generally been observed, that the European population of the United States is tall and characterised by a pale and sallow countenance.
- (27) Sorrow not as them that have no hope.
- (28) He having none but them, they having none but he.
- (29) They are not only the most charitable of any other nation, but most judicious in distinguishing the properest objects of compassion.
- (30) The part of this reed used by the Indians is from ten to eleven feet long, and no tapering can be perceived, one end being as thick as another.
- (31) It is observable that each one of the letters bear date after his banishment.
- (32) If he had writ me word by the next post, this had been just and civil.
- (33) Thou lovest, but ne'er knew love's sad satiety.
- (34) It was the most amiable, although the least dignified, of all the party squabbles by which it had been preceded.
- (35) Having perceived the weakness of his poems, they now re-appear to us under new titles.
- (36) His is a poem, one of the completest works that exists in any language.
- (37) It is characteristic of them to appear but to one person, and he the most likely to be deluded.
- (38) I think it may assist the reader by placing them before him in chronological order.
- (39) Image after image, phrase after phrase, starts out vivid, harsh and emphatic.
- (40) Humanity seldom or ever shows itself in inferior minds.
- (41) The position of an hereditary monarch and an usurper are very different.

- (42) I see there was some resemblance 'twixt this good man and
E.
- (43) That volume was a legacy to whomsoever values what is
best in English literature.
- (44) The expressions he used in his speech sounded harshly to
his audience.
- (45) Let no quarrel nor ~~no~~ brawl to come
Taint the condition of this present hour.
- (46) If an ox gore a man or a woman so that they die.
- (47) Our noble Arthur, him ye scarce can overpraise,
Will hear and know.
- (48) Too great a variety of studies distract the mind.
- (49) Being his sole companion, he naturally addressed himself
to me.
- (50) There has lately appeared the life of Cromwell, not Oliver,
but he who was Henry the Eighth's minister.
- (51) Henceforward, squall nor storm
Could keep me from that Eden where she dwelt.
- (52) When you or I are made
A fable, song, or fleeting shade.
- (53) And they all murmured saying, That he was gone to be a
guest with a man that is a sinner.
- (54) The French Press know little or nothing of the actual facts.
- (55) It lies between the three.
- (56) He talks like Brunswick did.
- (57) For not to have been dipped in Lethe's stream
Could save the son of Thetis from to die. ~~die~~
- (58) Every person has a right to defend themselves.
- (59) What is the good of me learning this?
- (60) Fleet Street and the Strand with Trafalgar Square was one
mass of seats on Coronation Day.
- (61) He is better versed in theology than any living man.
- (62) A convent, a lunatic asylum, a husband—either will do. (M)

3. Correct the following sentences where necessary, giving reasons
for your corrections:—

- (1) The influence of men and women like they are very great.
- (2) Every man ought to forgive each other their trespasses.
- (3) Whom do you think he is? Everyone has their own
opinion about him.
- (4) Already embittered by his poverty, this new blow quite
overwhelmed him.
- (5) The king then entered on that career of misgovernment
which, that he was able to pursue it, is a disgrace to the
country.
- (6) He does it with a better grace, but I do it more natural.
- (7) There is at the gate a young gentleman much desires speech
with you.
- (8) As an old soldier, the paragraph headed "The Waterloo
Veteran" reads a bit doubtful.
- (9) It is from this Germanic language that English besides
Dutch and Frisian are derived.
- (10) It was Christmas Day, and dawn was breaking through the
window.

- (11) A female murderer has as much right to be hung as a man.
- (12) All these sorts of mistakes are along of you knowing too much.
- (13) He was introduced to the others present, whom he thought were all very pleasant people.
- (14) Having seen your advertisement in this morning's *Tele-graph* for a junior clerk, I beg to apply for the same.
- (15) Being killed on the battle-field, I buried him there.
- (16) My friend and myself took a walk together.
- (17) There have been three famous orators in our day, either of who would illustrate my meaning.
- (18) Tell me in peace what each of them by the other lose.
- (19) Neither the captain or lieutenant who accompanied you and I over the ship wore their swords.
- (20) Standing on the top of the hill, the eye roams over a beautiful landscape.
- (21) A few weeks' anxiety are enough to sadden the most beaming countenance.
- (22) Fortune's blows
When most struck home, being gentle wounded, craves
A noble cunning.
- (23) There will be quite a panic when the news come.
- (24) I shall have much pleasure in accepting your kind invitation.
- (25) Therefore they thought it good you hear a play
And frame your mind to mirth and merriment.
- (26) He joined that one of the two causes which seemed to him least unsound.
- (27) Do you mind me taking a little more sugar?
- (28) It would have been wrong to have refused his kindness.
- (29) Trip it deft and merrily.
- (30) Be thou, fierce spirit, my spirit!
Be thou me, impetuous one.
- (31) This is the greatest error of all the rest.
- (32) Coming home from church, it began to rain.
- (33) Why I do trifle thus with his despair
Is done to cure it.
- (34) Neither this boy nor that are worthy of a prize; and the latter is the worst of the two.

CHAPTER XVI

ORDER OF WORDS: EMPHASIS AND ELLIPSIS

212. **ORDER OF WORDS**—In an inflected language like Latin or Greek, the order of words in a sentence is not, in most cases, of very great importance, since the function of each word and its relation to the rest of the sentence is plain from its inflection. Thus in Latin whether we say :—

Romanī vicerunt Gallos,

or, Gallos vicerunt Romanī,

the meaning is the same and is perfectly clear, because of the inflections -i and -os for the Nominative and Objective Cases. But in the English sentences :—

The Romans conquered the Gauls,

The Gauls conquered the Romans,

the meaning of the first is just the opposite of the second, though the words are identical.

It is **the order**, in fact, which has caused the difference in meaning.

One sees, in advertisements, many absurdities due largely to carelessness about order of words : e.g.

Wanted, a boy to open oysters with good personal character.

For sale, a bookcase by a lady eight feet high and five feet broad.

213. **CLEARNESS**—The order of words should invariably be such as will leave no possible doubt in the mind of the reader or audience as to their meaning. The general rule to be observed is that things connected with one another should be mentioned together, or should at least be placed as near as possible to one another. This is known as the **Rule of Proximity**.

214. The Subject usually precedes the Verb

e.g. There stood *a man*.
 Hardly had *he* spoken when . . .

Long live the *king*!

Have *you* any money?

Go ye into all the world.

Should *he* come, tell him I want him.

You and I have seen many lands.

The Object usually follows the Verb.

Except :—A Relative or Interrogative Pronoun, which precedes it :— *Whom* do you seek?

I do not know *what* you want.

The Indirect Object precedes the Direct : *e.g.* I gave *him* a book.

An Extension of the Predicate must not separate **Object** and **Verb** unless the Object is qualified by a clause or long phrase.

Thus we say : he saw the man in the house ;

but: he saw in the house the man whom he had been long expecting.

215. **Adjectives used attributively** usually precede the Noun they qualify.

Except : (1) When there are several :—

He spoke of things *good, bad, and indifferent.*

(2) When the Adjective is enlarged by a phrase or clause:—

I am a soldier, I, *older in practice, abler than yourself to make conditions.*

(3) In certain phrases, mostly legal and mostly from the French: e.g. Lords *Spiritual*, heir *presumptive*, letters *patent*, Church *militant*.

Words, phrases, or clauses in agreement or apposition should be placed next to one another : thus—

(a) He saw the ghost of *Banquo*, sitting with the courtiers.
whom he had murdered,

should be : He saw the ghost of *Banquo*, *whom he had murdered*,
sitting with the courtiers.

(b) For *Herodias'* sake, *his brother Philip's wife*,
preferably : For the sake of *Herodias*, *his brother Philip's wife*.

216. For the various positions of the **Adverb** see § 149.

The cardinal rule here as elsewhere is that of Proximity.

Especial care is needed in the use of certain Adverbs, as the meaning of the sentence is often completely changed by alteration of their position ; amongst these are : *at least*, *at anyrate*, *only*, *solely*. Consider the difference due to the position of *only* in the following:—

Only, I wish to draw your attention to this matter.

I *only* wish to draw your attention to this matter.

I wish *only* to draw your attention to this matter.

I wish to draw *only* your attention to this matter.

I wish to draw your attention *only* to this matter.

The **Divided Infinitive** (§ 101 note) is not to be imitated. The Adverb should be placed before or after the Infinitive.

I should like to *at once* say that . . . (incorrect).

I wish to *personally* thank you (incorrect).

217. A **Preposition** should immediately precede its object and should follow as closely as possible the other word or phrase which it connects. The following is therefore very awkward:—

There's no disjunction to be made but *by*,

As heaven forefend, *your throne*.

Except : With the Relative and Interrogative Pronouns, *whom* *which*, *what*, the Preposition *may* be placed after the Verb ; and with the Relative *that* it *must* take that position :

Whom are you looking *for* ? }

or, rather better, *For* whom are you looking ? }

This is the house that I live *in*.

NOTE.—A clash of two Prepositions should be avoided for the sake of euphony. Thus, instead of:—

This was the man he had been sent *to with* the money,
say, This was the man *to* whom he had been sent *with* the money.

218. Correlatives must be placed immediately before the words connected.

He was *not only* blamed *but also* punished (correct).
but: He *not only* saw Mrs A. *but also* Mrs B. (incorrect).

The latter should be changed to: "He saw *not only* Mrs A. *but also* Mrs B.

219. CHANGE OF ORDER—We frequently find that the order of words in a sentence is not in accordance with the principles laid down in the last few paragraphs. The departure from the natural order is generally made for the sake of **Emphasis**. A word or phrase is placed in a certain unusual position in a sentence, in order that it may stand out and be especially prominent to the hearer or reader. Such change in order of words is frequently employed in poetry, in semi-poetical books like the Bible, and in oratory, for effect and ornament. It is also serviceable in ordinary composition, provided it does not in any way obscure the meaning; it should always be borne in mind that the main object of Emphasis is to make the meaning doubly clear.

220. POSITIONS OF EMPHASIS—There are certain positions in an English sentence which are more emphatic than others. The two positions of emphasis are the **beginning** and the **end**; the middle is, generally, comparatively unemphatic. As a rule, the end of a sentence is more effective than the beginning; but sometimes both are equally balanced.

221. THE EARLIER PART OF THE SENTENCE—The first words which meet our eye or ear will of necessity be prominent; hence it is that the Subject is usually placed very early in a sentence. But the first words will be doubly emphatic

if they appear to us to be occupying an unusual position there. Thus we have :

(a) The Complement placed first :—

Sweet are the uses of adversity.

Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof.

(b) The Object placed first :—

Serenity Shakspeare did attain.

Then *none* have I offended.

Him declare I unto you.

(c) An Adverb or Adverbial phrase placed first :—

Home they brought her warrior dead.

Seldom he smiles.

It will be readily perceived that if these sentences were arranged in their natural order, much of their effect would be lost. Thus the sentences : "The uses of adversity are sweet," "Then I have offended none," are flat and colourless in comparison with the originals.

222. THE END OF THE SENTENCE — The last words leave a special impression on our minds because of the pause which follows. In the sentence : "Doth this in Cæsar seem ambitious?" the speaker lays special stress on the word *ambitious*, which is, for that purpose, placed last. The impression left on the minds of his hearers would have been somewhat different if he had said : "Doth this seem ambitious *in Cæsar*?"

Again, in the sentence : "Most critics ascribe this play to Shakspeare," both the words *most critics* and *Shakspeare* are prominent, but the latter is rather more emphatic. Greater stress could be laid on the former words by re-writing the sentence as : This play is ascribed to Shakspeare by *most critics*.

In longer sentences which are well-constructed there is another reason why the final words are especially prominent. This is because they form a kind of conclusion or climax to which the rest of the sentence gradually leads. Our minds are therefore in a state of expectancy during the earlier portions of the sentence ; and when the final words arrive they make a certain impression on us, that is, they are *emphatic*. Thus :—

"When he had seen Mr S. and had settled all the business which for many weeks had been a source of anxiety to him, *he returned home.*"

NOTE 1.—By changing the order of words to emphasise the earlier part of a sentence, it often happens that we change the order of the final words as well, and thus emphasis at the beginning of a sentence frequently involves emphasis at the end also: *e.g.*

Satisfaction there can be none.

NOTE 2.—Since the end of the sentence is a position of emphasis, it follows that a sentence should seldom finish with an unemphatic word, such as a preposition or the word *it*.

223. OTHER METHODS OF PRODUCING EMPHASIS—

(a) A particular word may be made much more emphatic by pre-facing it with the words *it is* or *it was*. Consider the sentence:—

Alfred conquered the Danes in 878.

We may make *Alfred, the Danes, or 878* especially prominent thus:—

It was Alfred who conquered the Danes in 878.

It was the Danes whom Alfred conquered in 878.

It was in 878 that Alfred conquered the Danes.

(b) Correlatives may be placed before pairs of phrases, each of which, particularly the latter, thereby gains effect:—

As in Adam all men die, even so in Christ shall all be made alive.

(c) An idea may be made prominent by *repetition* either in the same or in other words:—

Britons *never, never, never* shall be slaves.

At her feet *he bowed, he fell, he lay down.*

Many phrases of our language, on this principle, go in pairs, both members of the pair meaning practically the same: *e.g.* "part and parcel," "odds and ends," "dust and ashes."

(d) Effect is frequently given to an idea by means of Figures of Speech (see Chapter xxx).

224. ELLIPSIS is the omission of some word or words which belong to the grammatical structure of a sentence and which are to be mentally supplied by the hearer or reader. *E.g.* in the sentences:—

Either the man \wedge or the woman must go

He came but \wedge soon returned

the words *must go* and *he* are respectively omitted. In such

examples as the above, the words omitted are easily supplied, and when supplied they complete the sentences grammatically. Such instances of Ellipsis are said to be **Legitimate**.

225. But (1) where any doubt occurs as to what words should be supplied, or (2) where the words supplied from another part of the sentence do not fit grammatically, the ellipsis is, strictly speaking, **Illegitimate**, though many instances which violate the second of these principles are sanctioned by usage.

As an example of illegitimate ellipsis due to a violation of the *first*, we may take the sentence:—

I will have mercy and not sacrifice.

There are two possible interpretations of this:—

(1) I will have mercy and will not sacrifice (anyone).

(2) I will have mercy and will not have sacrifice (Noun).

The sentence should accordingly be rewritten with the missing words supplied. A similar ambiguity appears in the sentence:—

I like you better than anyone.

As an example of illegitimate ellipsis due to a violation of the *second* of the above principles we may take the sentence:—

He is richer but not so happy as his brother.

Here it would appear that the word *as* is omitted after *richer*, seeing that it occupies a correlative position after *happy*; but the word actually required is *than*, which accordingly should not be omitted. Similarly, in the sentence:—

He neither has ^ nor will go to the theatre.
gone should be inserted after *has*.

NOTE.—On the other hand the sentence:

He is taller than I ^

is considered perfectly correct, although the words omitted are *am tall*—words quite different from *is taller*, which would be expected. This (and similar cases) can only be defended on the grounds of custom.

226. The following are a few instances of ellipsis which are permissible:—

(1) Words previously mentioned: *e.g.*

The general inspected the men and ^ made a speech.
They like him but ^ not me.

(2) Words mentioned shortly after:

He can ^ and must do his work.
They read ^ and answered his letter.

- (3) Words after the Conjunctions *than, as* :
I am as old as you ^
- (4) The Relatives *that, whom, which*, when objects to a Verb :
This is the man ^ I saw.
Those were the books ^ you meant.
- (5) The Conjunction *that* :
He said ^ it was quite satisfactory.
- (6) Words after Interjections :
O ^ for a sword !

227. The following are instances in which the ellipsis is inadvisable in ordinary composition, though such constructions are often found in poetry :—

- (1) The Relative when Subject : *e.g.*
There's two or three of us ^ have seen strange sights.
- (2) The Relative with a Preposition : *e.g.*
I do not like the way ^ you do it.
This is the road ^ you came.
- (3) The Antecedent : *e.g.*
^ Who does this will be punished.
- (4) The Article : *e.g.*
I saw the principal and ^ secretary.
This is incorrect, if different persons are meant.
- (5) A Preposition or Conjunction : *e.g.*
I saw them arriving ^ and departing from the station.
The question is whether this angle is greater ^ or equal to the other.
- (6) A part of a Tense, when that part cannot be supplied from the rest of the sentence : *e.g.*
He neither has ^, will ^, nor is successful.

228. There are many cases of ellipsis of which the legitimacy is open to question. Each case has to be considered on its own merits, and very frequently no definite decision can be given ; for custom and idiomatic use have often to be weighed against grammatical precision. The determining factor, after all, in such cases, must be the clearness or ambiguity of the sentence. Some of the examples given at the end of this chapter must be judged according to this standard.

NOTE.—A sentence which is arranged in faulty order or which is elliptical will sometimes bear two possible interpretations. When this is the case, the sentence should be corrected in two ways so as to demonstrate each interpretation clearly.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVI.

1. Rearrange the following sentences or otherwise correct them, giving reasons, where necessary, for your corrections :—

- (1) Luckily the monks had recently given away a couple of dogs, which were returned to them, or the breed would have been lost.
- (2) He was shot by a secretary under notice to quit, with whom he was finding fault—very fortunately without effect.
- (3) Few people learn anything that is worth learning easily.
- (4) You have already been informed of the sale of Ford's theatre, where Mr Lincoln was assassinated, for religious purposes.
- (5) The Moor seizing a bolster, full of rage and jealousy, smothers her.
- (6) Would you rather a lion ate you or a tiger ?
- (7) He gave his parting directions to a youth who had come with him, in a tone of mild authority.
- (8) I have lost not only my customers, but Mrs Rachel herself is gone also.
- (9) He left the room very slowly repeating his determination not to obey.
- (10) Brian the hermit stood by a fire, which had been made barefooted and in cap and hood.
- (11) After a long and prosperous reign of sixty-three years we heard the sad news of the death of Queen Victoria.
- (12) Homer was not only the maker of a nation but of a language. (M)

2. Rearrange, or otherwise correct, the following sentences, writing notes on any difficulties :—

- (1) It is manifestly unjust, even if it were possible to really test his accusations.
- (2) I saw a gentleman who had shot hundreds of buffaloes in London a month ago.
- (3) People say that we should not blame Russia of all nations for not evacuating Manchuria, since we have not yet evacuated Egypt.
- (4) The orator spoke of the notion that the national debt might be repudiated with absolute contempt.
- (5) The Board has resolved to erect a school to accommodate a thousand children three stories high.
- (6) The captain took the good things which the gods provided with thankful good-humour.
- (7) The duke yet lives that Henry shall destroy.
- (8) He not only blamed the manager but also the whole of the staff.
- (9) The man ought to be brought before a magistrate, who utters such threats.
- (10) He rode from the house where he had had dinner on a bicycle.
- (11) You have some knowledge of the subject at any rate, whilst I know nothing about it.

- (12) He killed a sparrow with a pistol which was eating some bread-crumbs.
- (13) Meanwhile she rushed into the kitchen and found her friend, laughing and stumbling in her haste.
- (14) You will see the gentleman to whom I introduced you every day.
- (15) Driving up in his carriage we saw him as we were going to business.
- (16) Gibraltar is a rock at the entrance of the Mediterranean which is well fortified.
- (17) He wore a curious hat on his head for which he paid half-a-crown.
- (18) They only work when they have no money.
- (19) Many people know little or nothing of the abilities of our leading men who discuss them freely.
- (20) He was charged with stealing the goods by order of the proprietor of the shop, though he had not even seen them.
- (21) It is probable that no one envied the general more than his officers.
- (22) The captive ate and drank the bread and the water as though they were nectar and ambrosia.
- (23) He criticised recently that renowned singer, who does not know one note of music from another.
- (24) This coat wants mending badly.
- (25) Noah for his godliness, and his family, were preserved from the Flood.

3. In the following sentences, emphasise by any method the words given in brackets after each sentence :—

- (1) Nelson defeated the French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar in 1805; [(1) *Nelson*; (2) *The French and Spanish fleets*; (3) *Trafalgar*; (4) 1805].
- (2) The next generation will profit by this law [*The next generation*].
- (3) Thou art dust and thou shalt return unto dust [*dust and unto dust*].
- (4) I cannot be so glad of this as they [*so glad of this*].
- (5) Pope Gregory pitied the young English slaves [(1) *Pope Gregory*; (2) *pitied*; (3) *the young English slaves*].
- (6) We laid him down slowly and sadly [*slowly and sadly*].
- (7) I will never allow such conduct in my house! [(1) *Never*; (2) *I*; (3) *such conduct*].
- (8) He shall not break a bruised reed, and he shall not quench smoking flax [*A bruised reed and smoking flax*].

4. Write out in prose order :—

- (1) His trust was with the Eternal to be deemed Equal in strength; and rather than be less, Cared not to be at all; with that care lost Went all his fear: of God, or Hell, or worse, He recked not; and these words thereafter spake :—
 “ My sentence is for open war. Of wiles More unexpert I boast not: them let those Contrive who need or when they need; not now.”

- (2) Thus saying, from her side the fatal key,
 Sad instrument of all our woe, she took ;
 And towards the gate, rolling her bestial train
 Forthwith the huge portcullis high updrew,
 Which but herself, not all the Stygian powers
 Could once have moved ; then in the keyhole turns
 The intricate wards, and every bolt and bar
 Of massy iron or solid rock with ease
 Unfastens.

5. Expand the following elliptical sentences, and otherwise correct them. State in which cases the ellipsis is to be accounted an error, and why :—

- (1) Whose own example strengthens all his laws,
 And is himself the great sublime he draws.
- (2) The country was divided into counties, and the counties
 placed under magistrates.
- (3) This dedication may serve almost for any book that has, is,
 or shall be published.
- (4) In the best countries a rise in rent and wages has been found
 to go together.
- (5) He belongs to one caste, and the hewers of wood and drawers
 of water to another.
- (6) There were readers in multitudes ; but their money went
 for other purposes, as their admiration was fixed elsewhere.
- (7) Breaking a constitution by the very same errors that so
 many have been broke before.
- (8) This is he, my master said,
 Despised the fair Athenian maid.
- (9) My resolution is to spare no expense in education ; it is a bad
 calculation, because it is the only advantage over which
 circumstances have no control.
- (10) He preferred to know the worst than to dream the best.
- (11) Nor do I know anyone, with whom I can converse more
 pleasantly, or I would prefer as my companion.
- (12) They drowned the black and white kittens.
- (13) Nothing has or could be more unfortunate.
- (14) Men who started on a wrong tack, and instead of grappling
 with the facts, lost themselves in a maze of misty specula-
 tion.
- (15) The daily walk is essential for every school-girl, as if not, her
 lessons become very dull.
- (16) Hardly had he done this than the man mentioned appeared.
- (17) Some girls at school make friends and remain so all their
 lives.
- (18) Many thanks for your letter which I have forwarded to Mr
 S., and asked him to write direct to you.
- (19) From the pier you can see all the large merchantmen, coming
 and going from all parts of the world.
- (20) A statute, inflicting the punishment of death, may be, and
 ought to be repealed, if it be in any degree expedient.
- (21) He won't do more than he can help.
- (22) On attempting to extract the ball, the patient began rapidly
 to sink. (M)

6. Correct also the following (or defend them) in a similar manner :—

- (1) We thank you for the way you received us.
- (2) You have done this better than yesterday.
- (3) If the baby does not thrive on fresh milk, it should be boiled.
- (4) In loving remembrance of B., who passed peacefully away to rest, in her mother's and grand-parents' grave.
- (5) The general and myself walked around the camp.
- (6) Man never is, but always to be blest.
- (7) She calls me proud, and that she could not love me
Were men as rare as phoenix.
- (8) Yet one but flatters us,
As well appeareth by the cause you come.
- (9) Pray you, no more.
- (10) This triangle is of the same area but of different shape from the other.
- (11) He is to take the message, not you.
- (12) He is a man in whom I place entire confidence and shall always be prepared to recommend.
- (13) Which was the road you cycled to Ipswich ?
- (14) The manager likes you better than Mr Jones.
- (15) He has been taken prisoner and given his word that he will not attempt to escape.

7. Rearrange the order of the following words, so as to form a quatrain with alternate rhymes, and punctuate :—

While it lasts small service is true service scorn not one of how-
ever humble friends | the daisy protects the lingering dewdrop
from the sun by the shadow that it casts.

8. Rearrange the order of the following words, so as to form lines of poetry with alternate rhymes, and punctuate :—

Good fellow what will be thy gain lingering thus by my side he
cried that I shall have guarded thee faithfully my king | he
he only may wear true servants title who has not forgot his
lord himself for his lords gifts how rich soeer.

CHAPTER XVII

PUNCTUATION

229. **P**UNCTUATION, or the correct use of stops, is an important element in any form of Composition. The effect produced in speaking or reading by judicious modulation of the voice and by appropriate pauses, is obtained in writing by the use of stops. The main object of Punctuation is clearness; stops serve to group together words closely connected, and to separate words less closely connected.

The omission or insertion of a stop, or the substitution of one stop for another, may alter the meaning of a sentence considerably. Thus compare the meaning of the sentences:—

{ What! Have you heard about it?
 { What have you heard about it?
 { "The man," replied he, "is not here."
 { The man replied: "He is not here."

The Stops—and marks of similar nature—used in English are as follows:—

The Full Stop	.
The Comma	,
The Colon	:
The Semi-colon	;
The Note of Interrogation	?
The Note of Exclamation	!
The Apostrophe	'
Inverted Commas	" "
Brackets	() or []
The Dash	—
The Hyphen	-
The Diæresis	..
The Asterisk	*

When we examine the work of the best authors in our language, we are struck by the apparently arbitrary way in which stops are used. It is at once evident that the best authors do not altogether agree on the subject of Punctuation. Just as, frequently, two readers render a passage very differently and yet equally well, so two writers may punctuate a passage differently and yet each may be as correct as the other.

Punctuation is, in fact, to some extent, a matter of taste and judgment.

There are, however, certain general principles underlying the subject, and on these are based certain well established rules with regard to the use of particular stops, together with some rules which are more or less optional.

230. THE FULL STOP OR PERIOD is the sign which indicates greatest pause and separation. Its main function is to mark the end of a sentence, and thus to indicate the completion of an entire and independent thought. Sentences in English should not be too lengthy, for, if unduly prolonged, they are apt to become loose and rambling, and thus to lose both effect and clearness. No fault, probably, is so common in the composition of a beginner, as the scarcity of Full Stops. In general, a *Full Stop* is necessary at the end of any clause which is not joined to the next by a connective word; though a colon or semi-colon often takes its place. Thus in the sentence—

He went to London, he saw me there—

the comma is insufficient. We must alter the sentence in one of three ways: (1) insert a full stop after London; (2) insert the conjunction *and* after London; (3) insert the Adv. Conj. *where* and omit *there*.

Further, a succession of too many such clauses, even when thus connected, is to be avoided by the insertion of one or more full stops. Thus consider the sentence:—

“He came to see me while I was staying with Mr Jones whom you used to know, when you were in the village where I lived so many years.”

This is very awkward and involved: the mind is bewildered

by the multiplicity of dependent clauses. It can be considerably improved by the insertion of a Full Stop and the omission of one of the connecting words, thus :—

“He came to see me while I was staying with Mr Jones. You used to know the latter when you were in the village where I lived so many years.”

The Full Stop is also used after abbreviations :

M.A. (= Master of Arts). e.g. (= *exempli gratia*).

H.R.H. (= His Royal Highness). Lieut. (= Lieutenant).

When the last letter of the abbreviated word is given, the stop is optional, *e.g.* Dr Brown, Messrs Smith and Jones.

231. THE COMMA is the sign which indicates the shortest pause and the least amount of separation between words and phrases.

The employment of plenty of Full Stops has just been urged ; the advice must be reversed with regard to Commas.

Beginners are apt to insert commas at every possible opportunity ; such insertion only serves to confuse the mind of the reader by arresting his thoughts too often. As a general rule, Commas are to be employed when they serve to make the sense clearer.

Thus the Comma is used in the following circumstances :—

(1) To separate words or phrases in apposition : *e.g.*

Thus died Rienzi, the last of the Tribunes.

The daughter of a hundred earls,

You are not one to be desired.

(2) After a Nominative of Address : *e.g.*

Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour.

Friend, I do thee no wrong.

(3) To separate members of a series or enumeration :—

Germany, Austria, and Italy, formed an alliance.

How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable

Seem to me all the uses of this world !

NOTE.—The comma before *and* in such a series is optional. If a series of words are in pairs, the comma is placed after each pair : *e.g.*

High and low, rich and poor, wise and foolish, must all yield to Death.

(4) To separate *short* co-ordinate clauses (longer ones require to be separated by a colon or semi-colon): *e.g.*

I came, I saw, I conquered.

He walked in, and found me busy.

NOTE.—The comma is often omitted when there is a conjunction, especially if the sentence is short: *e.g.*

He came and saw me.

(5) To separate Adverbial Phrases, Nominative Absolutes, Adverbial Clauses, and optionally, an Adverb used Absolutely: *e.g.*

The doors being shut, they could not enter.

When they saw this, they were frightened.

Fortunately, the general arrived in time.

NOTE.—The comma is often omitted between a Principal and an Adverbial Clause when both are short, especially when the Principal Clause stands first: *e.g.*

He started when he saw me.

(6) A Noun Clause or Adjectival Clause should not be separated by a comma; but where more than one occur, they should be separated from one another: *e.g.*

(a) He likes to help those who are thrifty.

(b) He has discovered what it is, where it exists, and how to obtain it.

We like men who are honest, whom we can trust, and on whose word we can rely.

(7) To indicate a Parenthesis or an interpolation in a speech: *e.g.*

He said, to put it plainly, that the man was mad.

“I have come,” replied he, “to set you at liberty.”

(8) To show Ellipsis: *e.g.*

You may go your way; I, mine.

He will soon succeed; you, never.

232. It is with reference to the use of the **Colon** and **Semi-colon** that we find the greatest divergence of opinion. Some of the best authors appear to make no distinction between these stops; whilst others, who do distinguish between them, are not agreed as to what the difference is.

Broadly speaking, the semi-colon is more common than the

colon: and where any doubt exists the semi-colon may be safely employed. The most commonly accepted rules are given in the following paragraphs.

233. THE SEMI-COLON marks a pause of greater importance than that indicated by the Comma, and of less importance than that denoted by a Full Stop. It is generally used in sentences of some length, and for the following purposes:—

(1) To separate Co-ordinate Clauses, particularly when the Conjunction is omitted: *e.g.*

I was certain that what I said was true; I think, therefore, that I was justified in publicly stating the facts of the case.

(2) To mark an important pause, when commas have already been used for pauses of less importance: *e.g.*

The theory, as you observe, is unsupported by any evidence; and even if such evidence is obtained, I shall be unwilling to agree to your proposals without further investigation.

(3) To separate the parts of a compound sentence in which contrast is shown: *e.g.*

Speech is silver; silence is golden.

He was kind and sympathetic to me; they, on the other hand, were decidedly unjust.

NOTE.—The Colon is also permissible in this last case.

234. THE COLON, like the Semi-colon, marks a pause intermediate between that of the Comma and the Full Stop. It is often followed by a Dash. Its main uses are:—

(1) To introduce a speech or quotation: *e.g.*

Addressing the audience he said:—"I feel sure that everyone present will agree . . ."

(2) Before enumerations, examples, etc.:—

The Magi brought three gifts: gold, frankincense and myrrh.

The following are Proper Nouns: John, London, England.

(3) To introduce an explanatory remark: *e.g.*

They cannot pay their debts: for they have no money.

NOTE.—In this last case the Semi-colon may also be used.

235. THE NOTE OF INTERROGATION takes the place of a Full Stop at the end of interrogative sentences : *e.g.*

Where have you been ?

What were you doing yesterday ?

THE NOTE OF EXCLAMATION is used after Interjections and after phrases or sentences of a like nature expressing emotion or desire : *e.g.*

Alas ! poor Yorick !

How happy he seems !

Long live the king !

236. THE APOSTROPHE is used to show the omission of a letter or letters in a word : *e.g.* don't (= do not), 'tis (= it is), heav'n (= heaven). It is thus used in the Possessive Singular of Nouns to denote the omission of an original -e- : and, by analogy, it is also extended to the Possessive Plural. Thus man's (= O.E. mannes), king's (= O.E. kinges).

The Apostrophe is also (rarely) used for a few plurals, to avoid ambiguity : *e.g.*

Dot your i's and mind your p's and q's.

If if's and and's were pots and pans.

237. INVERTED COMMAS are used at the beginning and end of a quotation : *e.g.*

"I will see you to-morrow," answered he.

"Which of you," said he, "can tell me the name of this flower ?"

They are also occasionally used to set off a word or phrase, particularly when that word or phrase is used in a special sense : *e.g.*

The word "to" is generally a preposition.

He went to see "Hamlet" (meaning *the play of Hamlet*).

Single Inverted Commas are used to separate a quotation within a quotation, thus :—

"I consider," said he, "that the speech beginning 'I know where I will wear this dagger then' is the finest uttered by Cassius."

NOTE.—Some writers of the present day use single for double inverted commas in all cases.

238. BRACKETS are used for separating off a parenthesis, *i.e.* a phrase or clause which does not grammatically belong to the

sentence, but which is interpolated by way of explanation or for humour: *e.g.*

A common slave (you know him well by sight)

Held up his right hand, which did flame and burn.

He used his brains (or what passed as such) on the problem.

Double Dashes are commonly used in the present day instead of brackets: *e.g.*

Though Shakspeare had never been abroad he described—
such was his intuition—foreign customs with accuracy.

NOTE.—Too many parentheses should be avoided; they are generally a sign of an unmethodical or careless mind.

239. THE DASH is used:—

(1) To mark an interruption or a hesitancy in utterance:

He must be reprovèd and—what do you say?

I have—that is—well—I mean I will try.

(2) To resume a scattered subject:—

Friends, companions, relatives—all deserted him in the
hour of need.

NOTE.—Dashes are often incorrectly substituted for other stops, particularly commas and semi-colons.

240. THE HYPHEN—a shorter line than the Dash—is used to connect the parts of a compound word: *e.g.*

Happy-go-lucky, man-of-war, maid-of-honour.

It is also used for the purpose of showing the division of a word into syllables: *e.g.* Sweet-ness, beau-ti-ful.

241. THE DIÆRESIS is placed over the second of two vowels coming together, to indicate that they are not pronounced as a diphthong: *e.g.*

Coalition, preordination, coöperative,

NOTE.—A hyphen is frequently used instead of a diæresis: *e.g.* co-operative.

242. ASTERISKS indicate some words omitted. Dots are sometimes employed for this purpose.

All princely graces * * * * shall still be doubled on her.

243. CAPITALS—In connection with the subject of punctuation, it may be helpful to mention the functions of Capital Letters. They are used:—

- (1) To begin a sentence.
- (2) For all Proper Nouns and Adjectives derived from them :
e.g. John, English.
- (3) To begin every line of poetry.
- (4) To begin a speech, whether preceded by a Full Stop or not.
- (5) In titles of books, for the main words : *e.g.*
A Grammar of the English Language.
- (6) For the titles of people : *e.g.* General, Admiral, Dean.
- (7) For the word "I," for the Deity, and for certain interjections, such as "Oh," "Ah."
- (8) For a term newly introduced or described : *e.g.*

The Comma is the sign which, etc.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVII.

1. Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences :—
 - (1) Friends Romans countrymen lend me your ears.
 - (2) To tell you the truth I was surprised to hear of his success.
 - (3) They will be surprised when they hear that you have changed your plans will they not ?
 - (4) If you wish to discuss the matter call at my house this evening.
 - (5) The names of the evangelists are : Matthew Mark Luke and John.
 - (6) I do not know when he will come or how long he will stay.
 - (7) This man they say will be elected to the council.
 - (8) England is densely populated ; Canada far less densely.
 - (9) When he had thoroughly examined the house of which you spoke he determined that if the price were reasonable he would purchase it without delay.
 - (10) I cannot understand why you should suppose that because I gave you good advice I meant to blame you for what you had done.
2. Insert the requisite commas, colons, and semi-colons in the following sentences :—
 - (1) The village consisted of the church the vicarage and a score of cottages few of its inhabitants had ever seen a train.
 - (2) They have worked very hard and deserve to be successful you on the other hand have done nothing.
 - (3) If you enter for that examination you will have to choose one of the following subjects French German Latin.
 - (4) I am surprised that you refuse to accept my argument for it is logical I am convinced from beginning to end.
 - (5) Before rashly embarking on any wild speculation do not forget the proverb a fool and his money are soon parted.
 - (6) On occasions like the present it is customary I know for the chairman to make a few remarks I shall however content myself with placing before you three requests listen attentively to the lecturer observe his experiments carefully and finally study the subject afterwards in the books that he has recommended.

3. Write a short paragraph, consisting of two or three sentences, introducing as many as possible of the marks of punctuation.

4. Punctuate, supplying capitals where necessary :—

- (1) Where said i is john i want him at once you will not find him he has gone to see his mother replied my friend oh is that so well then i will call again in the evening said i then perhaps i shall see him.
- (2) No cries the dwarf who was by this time grown wiser no i declare off ill fight no more for i find in every battle that you get all the honours and rewards but all the blows fall upon me.
- (3) And now good reynold said the cook we may as well settle this brave fight we have in hand a true saying rejoined the other but first tell me friend for i protest you are my friend henceforth what is the score we have to settle ?
- (4) Who is here so vile continued brutus that will not love his country if any speak for him have i offended i pause for a reply none brutus none answered the people then none have i offended said he.
- (5) It is a pleasure to stand upon the shore and to see ships tossed upon the sea a pleasure to stand in the window of a castle and to see the battle and the adventures thereof below but no pleasure is comparable to the standing upon the vantage ground of truth a hill not to be commanded and where the air is always clear and serene and to see the errors and wanderings and mists and tempests in the vale below.
- (6) Stern Daughter of the Voice of God
O Duty if that name thou love
Who art a light to guide a rod
To check the erring and reprove
Thou who art victory and law
When empty terrors overawe
From vain temptations dost set free
And calm'st the weary strife of frail humanity
There are who ask not if thine eye
Be on them who in love and truth
Where no misgiving is rely
Upon the genial sense of youth.

5. How would you punctuate the following passages ? State clearly by what considerations you are guided in the punctuation of each :—

- (1) The influence of the literary class in England during the generation which followed the Reformation was very great. [Also the same transposed : " Very great was the influence of Reformation."]
- (2) Books of quick interest that hurry on for incidents are for the eye to glide over only. A newspaper read out is intolerable.
- (3) In time however the judgment of the many was over-ruled by that of the few and before the book was reprinted it was so eagerly sought that it sold for five times the original price. It is still read with pleasure the style is pure and flowing the classical quotations and allusions are numerous and happy and we are now and then charmed by that

singularly humane and delicate humour in which Addison excelled all men. (M)

6. Say how the following sentences are ambiguous, and how you would punctuate in accordance with each of the two meanings that can be assigned to them :—

- (1) Among other [prisoners] were these Mordake Earl of Fife son to the governor Archibald Earl Douglas Thomas Earl of Murray and the Earls of Athol and Menteith.
- (2) I have said it it is true I deny it it is false.
- (3) Which would you rather that the lion should eat you or the tiger?
- (4) I accomplished my business and returned the day after.
- (5) Next door to us there was a public-house which was a great nuisance. (M)

7. Punctuate, giving a reason for each stop :—

Ah sad and strange as in dark summer dawns
The earliest pipe of half-awaken'd birds
To dying ears as unto dying eyes
The casement slowly grows a glimmering square
So sad so strange the days that are no more. (M)

8. Arrange in metre and punctuate, supplying capitals where necessary :—

- (1) His courtiers of the caliph crave oh say how this may be that of thy slaves this ethiop slave is best beloved by thee for he is ugly as the night but when has ever chose a nightingale for its delight a hueless scentless rose.
- (2) What saw he not the churchs floor cumbered with dead and stained with gore what heard he not the clamorous crowd that shout their gratulations loud redmond he saw and heard alone clasped him and sobbed my son my son.
- (3) Thoughts whither have ye led me with what sweet compulsion thus transported to forget what hither brought us hate not love nor hope of paradise for hell hope here to taste of pleasure but all pleasure to destroy save what is in destroying other joy to me is lost. (M)
- (4) A chieftain to the highlands bound cries boatmen do not tarry and ill give thee a silver pound to row us oer the ferry now who be ye would cross lochgyle this dark and stormy water oh im the chief of ulvas isle and this lord ullins daughter and fast before her fathers men three days weve fled together for should he find us in the glen my blood would stain the heather.
- (5) Beside its embers red and clear baskd in his plaid a mountaineer and up he sprung with sword in hand thy name and purpose saxon stand a stranger what dost thou require rest and a guide and food and fire art thou a friend to roderick no thou darest not call thyself a foe I dare.
- (6) Let me speak sir for heaven now bids me and the words i utter let none think flattery for thevll find em truth this royal infant heaven still move about her though in her cradle yet now promises upon this land a thousand thousand blessings which time shall bring to ripeness she shall be but few now living can behold that goodness a pattern to all princes living with her and all that shall succeed.

CHAPTER XVIII

ENGLISH IDIOM

244. **G**ENERAL IDIOM—If a foreigner endeavoured to learn English solely by the study of a grammar and a dictionary, he might, with perseverance, arrive at a very fair knowledge of our grammar and vocabulary; and yet, if he attempted to translate a passage from his own language into English, or to write a piece of English composition, the result would not be **English** in the true sense of the word.

His failure would be due, in the main, to an ignorance of the **Use** of English words and phrases; and this ignorance is shared, to a greater or less extent, by many of us who use the language day by day.

Every language has its own particular mode of expression—its **Idiom**—based on a mode of thought peculiar to the people who speak it. Thus where English says of a person that he *is* right or wrong, French and German say he *has* right or wrong.

Compare also the greetings:—

English: How do you do?

French: Comment vous portez-vous? (literally, how do you carry yourself?)

German: Wie geht's? (literally, how goes it?)

245. **SPECIAL IDIOM**—The term **Idiom** is, however, more commonly used in a restricted sense to denote any form of expression, fixed in the language by custom, which contains some irregularity of grammar or interpretation.

The meaning of an idiomatic expression of this nature is peculiar to itself, and cannot generally be deduced from that of its elements; the idiom is in fact like a new word.

Thus in the sentence: "They rushed *at each other*" (objective), strict grammar would require: "They rushed *each* (nominative)

at *the other*" (objective); but few people would think of using the second sentence in preference to the first.

Again in the sentence: "When *are you going* to have dinner?" no idea of *going* is implied: the words *are you going* merely indicate a somewhat emphatic future.

So also some of our phrases are inconsistent; thus we say: "the city *of* Rome," but not "the river *of* Tiber."

Much pedantic criticism of English is due to the fact that the nature of such idioms is misunderstood. These irregular and often curious forms of expression are not to be avoided or accounted erroneous; rather must they be considered as the very heart and soul of the language. Their use serves to give a natural fluency and vigour to style which, without their aid, becomes stilted, formal, and dreary.

It is largely owing to ignorance or avoidance of idioms that the beginner's translation from or into a foreign language is (even though correct) so flat and colourless.

We shall divide idioms into the following classes:—

(1) General idioms—regular phrases proper to the language.

(2) Special idioms:—

(a) Grammatically irregular.

(b) Illogical or inconsistent.

(c) Elliptical.

(3) Idioms borrowed from foreign sources.

(4) Obsolete idioms.

246. GENERAL IDIOM—Many, perhaps most, of those phrases whose meaning is not the equivalent of their component parts originated:—

A. In figurative language, which, passing through transitional stages, lost all trace of its literal origin.

B. In proverbial or semi-proverbial expressions.

A. Originally figurative. It is somewhat difficult to draw a hard and fast line between idioms and such words and phrases as show merely a figurative use of a certain word [for these, see § 269]; we shall regard as idioms such expressions as are so far removed from their literal origin that a careful investigation is

needed to discover that origin. These phrases, if literally translated into a foreign language, would make nonsense, unless it happened that the foreign language had the same idiom.

The commoner Verbs and Prepositions in all languages seem to lend themselves more freely to idiomatic use than the other parts of speech. Many of the uses of Prepositions given in § 160 are sufficiently far removed from their original signification to be thus regarded.

The following are a few examples of constructions in which Verbs are idiomatically employed :—

- (1) **Make.** To make a thing good, to make one of a party, to make up a quarrel, to make up one's mind, to make room for, to make use of, to make believe, to make haste.
- (2) **Get.** To get up, to get to the end of a journey, to be getting late, to get ready, to get into trouble, to get a coat mended, to get on well with, to get rid of, to get over an illness, to get out of the way.
- (3) **Take.** To take a walk, to take a seat, to take to one's work, to take place, to take after a person, to take to flight, to take part in, to take anyone for a clever person.
- (4) **Give.** To give way, to give in, to give out, to give to one's touch, to give chase to a person, give and take.
- (5) **Miscellaneous :—**
To stand to reason, to fall in love, to carry out, to bring about, to set about, to pay a visit, to be in want of, to put up with.

The following are examples of other idiomatic expressions :—

A matter of course, out of sorts, behind-hand, I dare say, let me see, now and then, the fire has gone out, in short, by the way, for good, well and good, by all means, that will do, on all fours, at any rate, in the long run, tit for tat, at sixes and sevens.

B. Semi-proverbial. Many of our expressions are actual proverbs—general truths enunciated in a certain particular form, which has found favour with the nation, and has thus been incorporated in the language. Thus we speak of “burning the candle at both ends” of a person who is working or amusing himself night and day; or again of “carrying coals to Newcastle,” when we mean doing something which is unnecessary. But in addition to these proverbial expressions, there are many phrases of similar origin which have become so intricately mingled with the language of everyday life, that they have lost all trace of their proverbial origin and nature;

their origin, indeed, is sometimes very difficult to discover. Such seem to deserve a place among the idioms of the language.

Examples: to have a finger in the pie, a cock-and-bull story, a pretty kettle of fish, to find a mare's nest, to reckon without one's host, to be driven from pillar to post, to run the gauntlet, to call over the coals, to heap coals of fire on any one's head, under the rose, to eat humble pie, to play ducks and drakes with one's fortune.

247. GRAMMATICAL IRREGULARITIES—It must be remembered that the rules of grammar are derived from the language, and not the language from grammar (§ 18). There are exceptions to most rules; and no grammatical scheme, however skilful, can hope to include all examples,—there are, and must be, exceptional words and phrases which conform to no rule. Many of these have already been discussed in the course of this book; in such cases reference to paragraph will be given.

Examples:—

(1) The moon shines *bright*. This is an example of an Adjective used adverbially (§ 136). There is a curious inconsistency in such constructions. We say “he spoke *loud*,” but not, “he spoke *pleasant*.” “He looks *well*” has an entirely different meaning from “he looks *good*”; and we have *well-built* and *well-nurtured* side by side with *good-looking* and *good-natured*.

(2) The *then* queen. Here an Adverb is used adjectivally—the converse of 1 (§ 143).

(3) It is *me* (§ 204). Many object to this use of *me*, but it has the authority, not only of good writers, but of the best speakers.

(4) You *are mistaken*. This curious phrase is far more common than the regular formation “you mistook it.” It is probably formed in analogy with “you are right, wrong.”

(5) *These* sort of things. This oft-used phrase is an instance of *attraction*—the Adjective pluralised because of the general plural idea conveyed. Though it has the authority of some of our great writers, it is perhaps best avoided.

(6) The city *of* Rome, an angel *of* a girl, that gem *of* a building. In such phrases the *of* is peculiarly employed as a sign of apposition. (See § 82).

(7) He *is coming* to-morrow. The present tense was regularly

used in Old English for future events, and this use still survives in certain instances.

(8) The words are *as follows*. If *as* is a Relative Pronoun the Verb should strictly be *follow*, not *follows*. But it may be that the phrase is elliptical = *as* (the statement which) follows (shows).

(9) Is Warwick *friends* with Margaret? *Friends* is probably not plural but possessive singular: a remnant of the old adverbial use of the possessive which we still have in the word *needs* and in the phrase "it is *early days* to speak about it." In the Prayer-book we find "*anyways* afflicted or distressed." A similar meaning with the Preposition *of* is found in *of old*, *of late*.

(10) *I had rather*. This phrase, which has nothing to do with past time, is found only in this tense. It may be a corruption of *I'd rather* = *I would rather*; or more probably *had* is subjunctive = *would have*. Shakspeare has a corresponding construction with the Verb *be*: "*She were better* love a dream."

(11) *Lesser* (§ 140).

(12) Introductory use of *there*, *now*, and (§§ 150, 167).

(13) *Than with the Objective* (§ 167).

248. ILLOGICAL OR INCONSISTENT PHRASES—It is important that our minds should be trained to argue logically, and, as far as possible, each word we use should serve to develop our meaning. Nevertheless, there are certain words and phrases well established in our language, which, if analysed into their component parts are, or appear at first sight to be, self-contradictory or inconsistent. No doubt many of these were originally formed owing to carelessness in the use of words; but they now form part of the standard language.

A. Examples of illogical idioms:—

(1) *There* are many pictures *here*. If *there* and *here* were taken in their literal sense of *in that place*, *in this place*, the sentence would be absurd.

(2) They are *both* alike. Two *like* things cannot be anything else but *both* alike; one cannot be like and the other unlike. *Both* is really redundant.

(3) They will not do more *than they can help*. We mean by

this that there is a certain amount which they cannot help doing : more than this they will not do. So that logically the sentence ought to be : "They will not do more than they *cannot* help."

(4) *Ever so many* people were present. If expanded, this sentence, as No. 3, implies a negative omitted : "(There were) never so many people present (as there are now)."

(5) *No less a person than* the Prime Minister was there. Literally this sentence should mean that there was no one there under the rank of the Prime Minister—that all were as important as or more important than he ; whereas the sentence really has no reference to any of the others present, but states emphatically that actually that important person, the Prime Minister, was there.

(6) *All of them, both of them.* When we say "some of them," "many of them," we refer to a number picked out from the rest, *of* being used in a Partitive sense ; but we cannot thus talk of picking out *all* or *both* from the rest. It may be that these phrases have come into use through analogy with "some of them," "many of them" ; or perhaps *of* should be regarded as the sign of apposition [§ 247 (6)].

(7) His income *grew less and less*. To *grow* is to become greater ; hence the sentence is, literally taken, self-contradictory.

(8) I hoped *to have seen* you. What was hoped was not *to have seen* (Perf. Inf.), but *to see* (Pres. Inf.), which is therefore the more logical construction ; the former is, however, at least as much used as the latter.

(9) *Go and do* this ; *try and do* this. The former is logical because going and doing may be regarded as separate actions ; but *try* and *do* represent one and the same action, and it is therefore more logical to say : Try *to do* this.

(10) *Just now* means "a very short time ago," and *not* literally at this very moment.

Presently, on the contrary, in modern usage, means in a short time (later) and *not* "now at this moment ;" so *by and by*, which once meant "now at once," refers to a still later time.

(11) *Sooner or later*. There seems no reason why *sooner* should be comparative, unless the phrase is elliptical for "sooner or later than is expected" : *soon or later* would seem more logical.

(12) A *tin box*, an *iron copper*, *Worcester china*, *ten days' quarantine*, a *weekly journal*, *beef tea*. In these apparently self-contradictory phrases, the original meaning of the Nouns *box*, *copper*, etc., has been lost, and a more general or a different meaning attached to them. In *salt-cellar*, "cellar" is from French *salière* (= salt box), so that this curious formation really means "salt salt-box."

Examples of **Inconsistencies** :—

(1) We say: *How do you do?* but not, *how does he do?* And when we say: *how is he doing?* we imply that he is or has been ill.

(2) *Out of temper* and *in a temper* have much the same meaning. The former means "out of a *good* temper"; the latter "in a *bad* temper."

(3) We use the present *May he live long!* but not the past *Might he live long!*

(4) *Many a man*, *a great many men*. The former phrase is from "many (times) one man"; in the latter *many* has become almost a noun (= number) qualified by an adjective *great*, of being omitted before *men*, just as in *a thousand men*.

(5) We say: *I am to go* or *I have to go*, *I was to go* or *I had to go*; but while we say *I shall have to go*, we cannot say *I shall be to go*; and although we use *I was to have gone*, we never use *I had to have gone*.

249. ELLIPTICAL IDIOMS—Many phrases at first sight most curious, appear quite simple when expanded.

Examples :—

(1) He was wasting his time *as usual*. This, expanded, is equivalent to . . . as (relative) was usual for him.

(2) This is useless *as a tonic*, means this is useless *in the way that a tonic would be useful*.

(3) *Thank you* = I thank you (Pres. Indic.). So also: *Pray be seated* = I pray you, be seated.

(4) *Please come* at once. Originally, *if it please* (Subjunc.) *you* (Dat.) *come* (Imperative). Now we probably regard *Please* as an adverbial phrase (= kindly). Similarly *if you like* was originally impersonal, as in the Bible: "Write, if it like you, in the

King's name." The form: "Please to come at once" seems to be based on the mistaken idea that *come* is Infinitive.

(5) *I beg to* inform you. This formal mode of address, used in official letters, is an ellipsis for "I beg (ask) your permission to . . ."

(6) Be industrious: *that's a good boy*. In this colloquial expression the word *that* is loosely used for the general idea contained in the sentence "Be industrious"; thus the meaning is: "(for) *a boy who is industrious* is a good boy."

(7) He had no one to associate *with*. There is no word governed by the Prep. *with*: the sentence may be expanded as: "he had no one *with whom* to associate." This expansion is rather better English than the original, which ends with a weak word (§ 222, note 2).

(8) Our friends *left* this morning. *Left* is used absolutely, the object "this place" being omitted.

(9) This, that and *what not*; a contraction for "whatever there may be which is not included (under this and that)."

(10) *What trade* are you? We may regard *of* as omitted before *what trade*; or we may consider *what trade* as Adverbial Objective (§ 78).

250. FOREIGN IDIOMS—Most English idioms have formed part of the language for many centuries; some few, however, are modern borrowings—translations, in fact, of idioms in other languages. Just as some imported words have gradually become naturalised, while others are still felt to be foreign to all intents and purposes (§ 260), so is it with translated idioms. The following may be regarded as fairly well established:—

- (1) That is to say. French: *c'est à dire*.
- (2) That goes without saying. French: *cela va sans dire*.
- (3) He *affected* the latest fashion. French: *affecter*.
- (4) A new *standpoint*. German: *Standpunkt*.
- (5) How is that *for a joke*? German: *Was für ein . . . ?*
- (6) *As for* his friend. French: *quant à . . .*

Whereas the following still sound foreign to our ears:—

- (1) The subject came *upon the carpet*. French: *sur le tapis*.
- (2) The window *gives upon* the street. French: *donne*

251. OBSOLETE IDIOMS—Idiomatic constructions have changed with the development of the language; and such changes were much more likely to occur before the 17th century, after which period the widespread use of printed books served to render the language permanent. Consequently we find in Elizabethan English many constructions which are now obsolete, or of which only traces remain.

Examples :—

(1) I *hadn't ought* to do it. Originally *ought* was past tense and past participle of *owe*, so that this sentence, now a vulgarism, was once correct.

(2) All *along of* his behaviour. An old idiom, now a vulgarism, found in Shakspeare: "All along of the accursed gold"; "All this is 'long of you."

(3) Nor delayed the winged saint *after his charge received* (Milton). An imitation of the Latin use of the participle, not accepted in modern English.

(4) What went ye out *for to see*? This construction, which arose in the Middle Ages in imitation of the French, is now a vulgarism.

(5) You that presumed, *me overthrown*, to enter lists with heaven. This imitation of the Latin Ablative Absolute, or Old English Dative Absolute, has not survived; modern idiom prefers the nominative.

(6) He plucked *me* ope his doublet. *Me* is a dative of advantage—a Latin imitation.

(7) *It repented him* of the evil: *it pitied them* to see her in the dust. The impersonal use of many verbs with the dative or objective of the person, doubtless in imitation of the Latin, has fallen into disuse; the only survival is the old-fashioned *methinks* (=it seems to me).

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVIII.

1. What is meant by an Idiom? Mention two or three English idioms and try to explain them. (M)

2. Explain, as far as possible, what is idiomatic or peculiar in the following sentences :—

(1) He is the right man in the right place.

(2) Has any one got his wrong hat?

- (3) The provisions ran short.
- (4) He is a well-read man.
- (5) As a statesman he is perfect.
- (6) The fox dies hard.
- (7) After paying all expenses I have sixpence to the good.
- (8) Remember me kindly to your father.
- (9) He took no end of trouble over the matter.
- (10) Since that time the doctrine has obtained throughout Europe.
- (11) They are said to be well-off.
- (12) His faithful dog shall bear him company.
- (13) His prophecy came true.
- (14) He received a Roland for his Oliver.
- (15) All of a sudden he started up.
- (16) It is not worth troubling about.
- (17) They rendered first aid and he soon came to.
- (18) What if you lost the case?
- (19) I have a rod in pickle for him.
- (20) That is decidedly a feather in his cap.
- (21) He paid down on the nail.
- (22) What you say is neither here nor there.
- (23) Oddly enough, I have not seen him since.
- (24) He is a man who does nothing by halves.
- (25) He stood by his friend through thick and thin.

3. Explain in what respect the following sentences are contrary to English idiom, or otherwise faulty, and correct them :—

- (1) His manner is quite different to yours.
- (2) They feel very flattered by your remark.
- (3) It bears some remote analogy with what I have done.
- (4) Have you change of half-a-crown, please?
- (5) He is feeble as to his mind.
- (6) Don't blame it on to me!
- (7) They exchanged confidences among one another.
- (8) He took great exception against my plan.
- (9) They prefer taking a walk than sitting indoors.
- (10) Will you accept of this piece of honeysuckle?
- (11) He is said to enjoy very bad health.
- (12) A couple of ladies were hurt in the accident.

4. Express the following sentences according to modern English idiom :—

- (1) He shall refrain the spirit of princes.
- (2) Spare thou them that confess their faults.
- (3) It repented Him of the evil.
- (4) Learn me true understanding and knowledge.
- (5) He is like to die for hunger.
- (6) She did eat and was sufficed.
- (7) Judah was put to the worse before Israel.
- (8) He halted upon his thigh.
- (9) The lions brake all their bones or ever they came at the bottom of the den.
- (10) We are such stuff as dreams are made on.^{of}
- (11) You ought not walk without the sign of your profession.
- (12) Take no thought for the morrow.

5. Without assuming any incorrectness, discuss the following idioms, with special reference to the words italicised :—

- (1) His constancy *as a defender* of the truth was unalterable.
- (2) *No less a person* than the Archbishop was present.
- (3) They saw *each other* frequently.
- (4) We gazed upon that *gem of a building*, the Taj Mahal.
- (5) He had no boy of his own age to play *with*.
- (6) These growing feathers plucked from Cæsar's wing will make him *fly an ordinary pitch*.
- (7) The reasons that dissuade us are *as follow*.
- (8) That goes *without saying*.
- (9) Truly and *indifferently* to minister justice.
- (10) They were elected *upon the same platform*.
- (11) The window *gives upon* the street.
- (12) He reached the goal of his ambition *without let or hindrance*.
- (13) The affair *came upon the carpet*.
- (14) The *solidarity* of their interests is undeniable. (M)

CHAPTER XIX

THE USES OF WORDS

252. **I**N addition to a misuse of the idiom of the language, there is a certain class of faults to which we are liable, owing partly to our familiarity—reluctant, it may be—with the worst expositions of English conversation and composition, and partly to carelessness or lack of judgment in the use of our words. In this chapter we shall endeavour to examine in a critical manner the use of some of our words, and to select what is good and weed out what is bad in the language of the present day. The claim of words to find a place in standard English may be decided by a consideration of the following subjects :—

- (1) Idiom.
- (2) Appropriate words.
- (3) Distinction between words of similar form.
- (4) Use of the same word with different meanings, or of different words in reference to the same object.
- (5) Slang and vulgarisms.
- (6) Colloquialisms.
- (7) Provincialisms.
- (8) Obsolete words.
- (9) New words.
- (10) Foreign words.
- (11) Pleonasm and Redundancy.
- (12) Over-brevity and Verbosity.
- (13) Simplicity and Affectation.

253. **APPROPRIATE WORDS**—It frequently happens that when we wish to express a certain idea, several words occur to us from which to choose. Sometimes only one of the words con-

sidered is at all suitable to the accompanying words ; sometimes, although several may be suitable, one of them is the best for our purpose. Often, also, through ignorance of the exact signification of a word or through carelessness, we apply a word wrongly. Thus, in speaking of a piece of written composition, we should say that it is *illegible*, if we cannot make out the handwriting ; and *unreadable*, if we consider its subject or method of treatment not fit to be read.

Again, we may speak of the *discovery* of America and the *invention* of the first watch ; but not vice versa.

The following are examples of such misuse of words :—

Marlborough was a *notorious* general (for *famous*).

They sell *new* milk (for *fresh*).

He parts his hair in the *centre* (for *middle*).

His *death* was despaired of (for *life*).

For further remarks on this important subject see under Synonyms (§ 265).

254. WORDS OF SIMILAR FORM—Frequent mistakes are made owing to the confusion of certain similar words, such as lie and lay ; overflown and overflowed ; deficient and defective ; sensuous and sensual ; presumptive and presumptuous ; invaluable and valueless. The following are examples of faults of this nature :—

I saw the Frenchman *lay* (for *lie*).

His character is *unexceptional* (for *unexceptionable*).

This is a *continual* process (for *continuous*).

The *sanatory* condition of the village is bad (for *sanitary*).

He was much *effected* by the sight (for *affected*).

255. We must be on our guard against using a word in a certain sense and then shortly after using it in an entirely different sense ; such use often leads to ambiguity of meaning, and sometimes even to total misconception. Thus, such sentences as the following should be carefully avoided :—

A *volume* was published relating to the variation of the *volume* of water at different temperatures (for the first *volume* say *treatise* or *book*).

The *subject* of our story was *subject* to fits of insanity.

Gravitation is a *law*, and a *law* is made for the good of the

people; therefore gravitation is made for the good of the people.

[The absurdity here is due to the fact that the first *law* means an established fact in nature; the second an arbitrary, though convenient, custom.]

It may be noted that such constructions are occasionally permissible for the sake of humour: e.g. "That *lie* shall *lie* so heavy on my sword." A similar fault arises if the same pronoun is repeated twice with reference, not to the same, but to different objects:—

Mr Jones was sure that *he* would do his best to help *him*.

He brought his dog into the room where the cat was sitting; *it* rushed at *it* but *it* escaped.

The converse is equally true, that when a word has been employed to represent a certain idea, it should not be changed, if thereby it is likely to appear that a new idea is meant: e.g.

The *cubical content* of the larger box is three times *the volume* of the smaller (for *volume* say *cubical content* or *that*).

256. SLANG AND VULGARISMS consist of words and phrases which are either disreputable in themselves or are used in a connection in which they are considered disreputable; many of them are ungrammatical. All slang should be carefully avoided both in conversation and in composition; it is a sign of an unrefined or careless mind.

The following are examples of slang words: kid, ain't, bloke, bounder, governor (meaning *father*), rot (meaning *nonsense*), ripping (meaning *splendid*), awfully (meaning *very*).

The following are slang phrases:—

beastly rich, this here book, it don't, he didn't ought to, douse the glim (=put out the light), balmy (=somewhat mad), to get the sack. When any doubt exists as to whether a word is reputable, a standard dictionary should be consulted: slang finds no place therein.

The English student should also beware of Americanisms such as:—

boss, elegant (in the sense of *pleasant*), I calculate that it is true, I guess so (this was once correct English).

NOTE.—Slang usually comes up in a language, lasts a generation or so, and then vanishes, giving place to new slang ; if it keeps its place in the language for a longer period, it generally becomes correct English. Thus *mob* was once a slang word.

Colloquialisms are words or phrases used freely in conversation which are not exactly to be classed as slang, for they are not disreputable, but which nevertheless are not appropriate to any serious form of composition. They may sometimes appear in written dialogue (*e.g.* in a novel), and particularly when that dialogue is humorous, but should be avoided in higher forms of writing, especially in an essay.

Such are :—

to be struck all off a heap, to be at a loose end, to end in smoke, to have a good time, to give the show away, to give the lie to, to give the slip to, to take on a job, a good-for-nothing fellow, a good sort (= a pleasant person).

Even such contractions as : *don't, shan't, won't, can't*, are better avoided in composition though satisfactory in conversation. It is difficult sometimes to draw a hard and fast line between slang and colloquialisms.

257. PROVINCIALISMS are words or expressions used only in a certain part of the country. Some of these are quite correct in themselves—indeed they are often descended from Old English—but since they are not in use all over the country and are not generally accepted, they cannot claim a place in standard English, and should therefore be avoided. Of course, some works (as those of Scott or Burns) are professedly written in a certain dialect, and then such words (unless they are considered slang) are perfectly appropriate.

Examples of Provincialisms are : *ourn* (for *ours*), *her* (for *she*), *fond* (for *foolish*), *yon* (= *that*).

258. OBSOLETE WORDS are such as were once current in the language but have now gone out of use and are regarded as relics of the past. Many old words too, which still find a place in poetry, are not used in ordinary composition : they are generally known as *archaic*.

Examples of Obsolete and Archaic words are: hight (=is called), yclept (=called), bewray (=betray), caitiff (=prisoner), alack! (=alas!), yare (=ready), uneath (=with difficulty), runagate (=idler), nill (=will not), moe (=more), ruth (=pity), sooth (=truth), wot (=know), ween (=hope, think), eke (=also), trow (=think), leasing (=lying), jangled (=confused). See also § 408 (2).

259. COINING OF NEW WORDS—New words are from time to time necessary to express new ideas for which no words exist; and such, if generally accepted, become part of the language (see § 15).

But new words should not be coined where an appropriate word already exists. Thus it would be absurd to endeavour to substitute *distance-speaker* for telephone, *air-farer* for aeronaut, *folk-wain* for omnibus; even though the former words are more purely English in origin than the latter. So, again, we must not form words on the analogy of other word-formations. Thus on the analogy of such words as changeable, moveable, suitable, we might be tempted to coin *double*, *stopable*, *followable*: but it so happens that these words are not accepted as English words.

Before using any doubtful formation it is well to make sure that it finds a place in a standard dictionary.

260. FOREIGN WORDS—Just as new words should not be unnecessarily coined, so foreign words should not be used unless they represent a new idea or one for which there is no adequate expression in English. It is a mark of affectation to employ a foreign word where an equally expressive English one exists. Why say *terra firma* when *dry land* suits equally well?

Thus it is better to avoid such words and phrases as:—

au revoir, auf Wiedersehen (=farewell), congé (=dismissal), nettoyage (=cleaning), chef-d'œuvre (=masterpiece), garçon (=waiter), élite (=best society), café-au-lait (=coffee with milk), cognac (=brandy), nouveau-riche (=newly become rich).

On the other hand, we have probably no words which exactly represent the following, which are therefore permissible:—

tête-à-tête (=close conversation between two persons), chic (=pretty and fashionable), sine-qua-non (=a thing without which it cannot be done), blasé (=wearied and partly worn out), prestige (=esteem in which a nation is held abroad).

Further, it should be noted that many foreign words, whether needed or not, have become so fixed in our language that they are for all practical purposes a part of it. It would be impossible—and indeed undesirable—to oust such old established immigrants: they have come to stay. Under this heading we may place certain Latin and Greek words and phrases and abbreviations such as:—

analysis, criterion, crux, i.e., e.g., viz., etc., alibi, a priori; and some French words such as: menu, précis, trait, début.

261. PLEONASM AND REDUNDANCY—Both these terms mean practically the same—the insertion of superfluous words in a sentence. Unless used for the sake of *emphasis* (§ 223) such repetition should be avoided. The shortest way of saying a thing—at least, in prose—is always the best.

In the following examples the pleonastic words or phrases are italicised:—

The boy *he* would not go without his father's word.
 Many a time *and oft* have you climbed up . . .
 He never doubted *but* that you would come.
 Bisect the given line *into two equal parts*.
 She had a dreadful temper *and* which often led her astray.

262. BREVITY has been called “the soul of wit”; and it is certain that if an idea is expressed in a few words, it is much more likely to make a deep impression than if expressed more clumsily. To this fact is due the popularity of many of our proverbs: *e.g.*

More haste, less speed.
 Penny wise, pound foolish.
 A stitch in time saves nine.
 Like father, like son.

The opposite characteristic to brevity is **verbosity**. This is a common fault in the composition of beginners. Many words or many sentences are employed where a few would suffice, and thus a tedious and laboured effect is produced; the words are many, but the ideas are few. Moreover, as the minds of such beginners, especially if they are youthful, are not sufficiently trained to grasp an idea in its entirety, seizing on the salient

points and rejecting mere details, it frequently happens that a thing is repeated over and over again, with perhaps an extra detail added here and there. It should be the aim of every student to condense his knowledge, to sift it carefully from the dross of mere words, and to say exactly what he has to say in the clearest, tersest, and most emphatic manner. Even from the examination point of view, where the student has to work against time, brevity is of the highest importance.

On the other hand, it must be noted that **over-brevity** tends to obscurity. For instances of this fault, see Illegitimate Ellipsis (§§ 225, 227).

263. SIMPLICITY AND AFFECTATION — Our words should be chosen as far as possible to suit the subject in hand. If we are treating of subjects of an abstruse or poetical nature, long and uncommon words are both necessary and appropriate. But if we are dealing with simple subjects, treated in a practical manner, the simplest words are the best. This does not, of course, imply that we must continually hunt up the simplest possible word we could use; but rather that we should not do the reverse—hunt up a difficult one. Where a simple word expresses our meaning as fully and as clearly as a difficult one, it should be preferred.

The use of difficult or uncommon words where unsuitable is—like the employment of foreign words unnecessarily—a mark of affectation. In many cases the person who uses them does not completely understand their meaning.

Thus it is appropriate to speak of the *erudition* of a great scholar, but the *knowledge* of a school-boy; the *altitude* of a mountain, but the *height* of a house; the *rotundity* of the earth, but the *roundness* of an orange: though even in these cases the choice of word will depend upon the method in which we are treating the whole subject.

So also, for simplicity, an affirmative is generally better than two negatives: *e.g.* “This man is honest” rather than “This man is not dishonest”; unless, as in certain cases, a slight difference in meaning is intended.

It is ridiculous to say (unless humorously) *caudal appendage* when we mean *tail*; or *domiciliary edifice* for *house*; a *canine specimen* for a *dog*; *piscatorial art* for *fishing*; *natal day* for *birth-day*; *unlawful appropriation* for *stealing*; *culinary department* for *kitchen*. And, except in poetry, such phrases as the following are unacceptable:—

the eye of heaven (=the sun), the god of war (=Mars), the land of the Midnight Sun (=Norway), the Emerald Isle (=Ireland). Affectation in the use of long and high-sounding words and in exaggerated comparisons is often called **Euphuism**, from "Euphues," a book written by Lyly (1579) in this style.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIX.

1. Explain any common misuse of the following words and write sentences in illustration: artist, transpire, stop, nice, female, lot, jolly, divine.

2. Comment on any errors in the following passage and rewrite it in standard English:—

One day he come up to the office, all in a hurry, and had a private interview with the magistrate, who after a great deal of talk, rings the bell, and orders Jem Spyers in (Jem was a active officer), and tells him to go and assist Mr Chickweed in apprehending the man as robbed his house. "I see him, Spyers," said Chickweed, "pass my house yesterday morning." "Why didn't you up and collar him?" says Spyers. "I was so struck all of a heap, that you might have fractured my skull with a toothpick," says the poor man.

3. In the following sentences point out any inappropriate words and substitute suitable ones for them:—

- (1) I have just bought a quantity of books.
- (2) We have constantly seen him do that trick.
- (3) The man claimed that he had done the work well.
- (4) His exodus from the building was hasty and undignified.
- (5) I expect it was as you say.
- (6) We possess an abbreviated edition of that book.
- (7) There were fifty clergy in the procession.
- (8) Can I trouble you for your pen?
- (9) They unanimously deliberated upon the matter for an hour.
- (10) Democracy stood prostrate at the tyrant's foot.
- (11) I do not think he was intentionally irreverend.
- (12) He comes of the older branch of the family.
- (13) This is the most splendid sight I have ever witnessed.
- (14) He gave up his post and was replaced by his younger brother.
- (15) The master learnt him French and German.
- (16) I doubt his love of the subject is very great.
- (17) I am sorry to decline your invite.
- (18) A mutual silence took place for some time.
- (19) His extravagance eventuated in the loss of all his property.
- (20) His acquaintanceship with the subject is strictly limited.

4. State in what respects the following sentences do not conform to standard modern English and correct them:—

- (1) This is along of your being so jolly clever.
- (2) I guess he acts very much like James acted.
- (3) They left their books home this morning.
- (4) His modus operandi was to borrow a hat from one of the audience.
- (5) There are a lot of unfamiliar words on this page.
- (6) Bring them books down from the shelf!
- (7) The concert went off with great éclat.
- (8) You can't get a rise out of me like that.
- (9) Many mickles make a muckle.
- (10) Handsome is as handsome does.
- (11) That is how the jeunesse dorée spend their time.
- (12) Haply some hoary-headed swain will say . . .
- (13) It is real good of you to help me.
- (14) Come away in quickly!
- (15) I never could mind dates.
- (16) He is generally reckoned to be a very nice fellow.
- (17) It has been motioned and carried that we proceed with the present business.
- (18) They bus or tube it to business every morning.
- (19) My money is not just now getatable.
- (20) I must say that he made the amende honorable.

5. Examine the following sentences for faults due to Redundancy, Over-brevity, or Affectation, and correct them, giving reasons for your answers:—

- (1) I may do that I shall be sorry for.
- (2) The proverb "More haste less speed" is too true, as is often found in many cases.)
- (3) I am not surprised at his not being unknown to you.
- (4) His speech was frank and courageous as is everything he says, and which will please every honest man in the country.
- (5) Fortune forbid my outside have not charmed her.
- (6) This is the palatial residence of those who toil not neither do they spin.
- (7) He alone has the sole right to inflict punishment.
- (8) He enjoyed a life of peace and a natural death.
- (9) Conceal me what I am, and be my aid.
- (10) He took an early matutinal walk just after sunrise.
- (11) The sly slow hours shall not determinate
The dateless limit of thy dear exile.
- (12) His pecuniary deficiency brought him into conflict with the majesty of the law.
- (13) Owing to his repeated deviations from the principles of truth, he received his congé.
- (14) The reason of this disaster was, no doubt, because of the inefficiency of the officers.
- (15) In candent ire the solar splendour flames.
- (16) The final completion of the building will be done to-morrow.
- (17) I must first hear the conditions before I accept the post.
- (18) It is rather coldish this morning.

6. Comment on any errors of expression in the following :—

- (1) This was said by Macbeth in one of his soliloquies to his wife.
- (2) One should always give an action a moment's thought before putting it into execution and so saving a great deal of unpleasantness.
- (3) If it were possible to get near when one of these eruptions take place, we should have a grand sight.
- (4) A suit of armour that could be identified as worn at the battle of Agincourt would be priceless, and certainly ought to be deposited at the Tower.
- (5) The meaning of the phrase, "Look before you leap," is that before attempting to do anything to think over the best way, and then to give those thoughts practical experience.
- (6) Although everyone has heard this maxim, we still find that not ninety-nine in a hundred practise it.
- (7) Compared with the continents of Asia and America the mountains of Europe are rather low.
- (8) As White remarks, the Midsummer Night's Dream has no prototype in ancient or modern story.
- (9) In a word he apes the worst behaviour of the mule.
- (10) I am sorry not to subscribe to your cause. No one yields to me in appreciation of its importance.
- (11) Where there are plenty of boys, there is plenty of fun.
- (12) Such a statement is diametrically untrue.
- (13) I consider that his opinion should be wholly discounted.
- (14) Shakspeare frequently has passages in a strain quite false and which are entirely unworthy of him. (M)

7. Comment on any peculiarity in the construction or style of the following :—

- (1) Mr S. made a good speech for him, comparatively speaking.
- (2) He managed his friend's estate like his father did.
- (3) An aftermath of the war seemed to glow before the assembly all the evening.
- (4) Which way I fly is hell: myself am hell.
- (5) Him listed ease his battle-steed.
- (6) 'Tis sweet to rove when morning light
Resounds across the deep.

CHAPTER XX

THE MEANING AND STRUCTURE OF WORDS

264. **I**N the last chapter we were chiefly concerned with the use of words and their claim to a place in our composition. To some extent it was necessary to examine their meanings also, since use and meaning frequently correspond with one another. The purpose of the present chapter is the consideration, in greater detail, of the meaning of words, and of the bearing of structure upon their meaning.

We shall here deal with the following subjects:—

(1) Synonyms and Antonyms—words of similar or opposite meanings.

(2) Doublets—words of like origin.

(3) Homonyms—words identical in form.

(4) Change of meaning.

(5) Structure of words.

265. **SYNONYMS** are words which have the same, or nearly the same, meaning as one another. Few words—if any—are *exactly* equivalent: some slight difference, either in meaning or use, can generally be discovered. A careful writer will select the one word that he needs in preference to all the others. Examples:—

(1) *Custom, habit, fashion, use, routine.*

Custom: the repetition of an act, generally by a number of people, for some definite reason: *e.g.* "It is the *custom* in England to drive on the left-hand side."

Habit: involving a tendency, original or acquired, generally of an individual: *e.g.* "He has the objectionable *habit* of taking snuff."

Fashion: in small or transitory matters, such as *dress*: *e.g.* "The *fashion* in hats changes from year to year."

Use: dealing with a thing in a certain manner: *e.g.* "The *use* of long and uncommon words is a mark of affectation."

Routine: doing the same things in regular order: *e.g.* "The *routine* of office-work is distasteful to him."

(2) *Ask, request, beg, entreat, beseech, implore, pray.*

Ask: with the desire of obtaining what may reasonably be expected: *e.g.* "He *asked* for a week's holiday."

Request: more formal: *e.g.* "Mr Jones *requests* the pleasure of your company."

Beg: appealing to the pity or sentiment of a person, usually a superior; or for politeness' sake, to an equal: *e.g.* "He *begged* his master to overlook the offence this once." "I *beg* your pardon."

Entreat: with special earnestness or repeatedly: *e.g.* "He *entreated* them not to leave him alone."

Beseech: with humility and reverence: *e.g.* "We *beseech* thee to hear us, good Lord." [*Beseech* is nearly obsolete.]

Implore: with passionate utterance, perhaps with tears: *e.g.* "She *implored* him on her knees to forgive her son."

Pray: chiefly to God: *e.g.* "We therefore *pray* Thee help Thy servants."

(3) *Proud, haughty, vain, conceited.*

Proud: feeling exalted because of something one has done or of what is connected with one: *e.g.* "He is *proud* of his success"; "they are *proud* of their clever son."

Haughty: ostentatiously showing supposed superiority: *e.g.* "His manner of speaking is *haughty* and overbearing."

Vain: of something which really exists, generally personal, but which is an insufficient or unsuitable subject for pride: *e.g.* "He is *vain* of his good looks."

Conceited: assuming the possession of qualities which do not exist or exist only in a minor degree: *e.g.* "He is *conceited* enough to suppose that he is the finest singer in England."

(4) *Truth, truism, veracity.*

Truth: correctness of statement or fact: *e.g.* "The *truth* of your remarks is incontestable."

Truism: a self-evident truth, an axiom: *e.g.* that "a circle is round" and that "the sun shines" are *truisms*.

Veracity: the power or quality of a person to tell the truth: *e.g.* "The *veracity* of the witnesses was questionable."

(5) *Suffer, permit, allow.*

Suffer: to refrain from hindering, even though it be distasteful: *e.g.* "Suffer it to be so now."

Permit: to give express consent: *e.g.* "He *permitted* his son to go there."

Allow: to remain neutral, to refrain from consenting or prohibiting: *e.g.* "He *allowed* the enemy to pass through the land."

NOTE.—It requires a considerable knowledge of English as well as a careful and accurate mind to explain the shades of difference in the meaning and use of Synonyms. The student will find it excellent practice to attempt to discover and express such differences; where he finds, after due consideration, that he is unable to do this successfully, he should consult a dictionary. By such practice his actual vocabulary will be considerably extended, and his language will gain both in precision and in versatility.

Pairs of Synonyms. We find many pairs of Synonyms in English; this is due, in many cases, to the twofold origin of our language—Teutonic and Romanic (Chapter i.). After the Conquest, Norman-French words, corresponding to English words already existing, were often introduced. Frequently, the new word was the exact equivalent of the old; but time has generally produced a greater or less difference in their meanings. Thus we have:—

Teutonic Origin

wander
acknowledge
buy
work
foe

Romanic Origin

err
confess
purchase
labour
enemy

266. DOUBLETS—During the Middle Ages, and particularly in the sixteenth century, a large number of Latin words were introduced *directly* into English. Some of these had already been brought into the language through the medium of French, but in a slightly different form. Thus we have many pairs of words derived from the same originals; these are called **Doublets**. In some cases the meanings of a pair are sufficiently close for them to be classed as Synonyms; in others, the meanings have become so divergent that they cannot be so classed. We may class the following Doublets as Synonyms: assay, essay; gentle, genteel; poor, pauper; regal, royal; redemption, ransom.

On the other hand the following doublets now differ considerably in meaning: chant, cant; fealty, fidelity; treason, tradition; feat, fact; legal, loyal; sure, secure; potion, poison.

267. ANTONYMS are pairs of words which have the opposite, or as nearly as possible the opposite, meanings. Thus the following are Antonyms: true, false; simple, complex; beautiful, ugly; abstract, concrete; honour, dishonour.

268. HOMONYMS are words which, though derived from entirely different sources, have assumed the same form in English with various meanings corresponding to their originals. Thus they may, in a sense, be considered as the converse of Doublets. Examples are:—

- Lie* : (1) To speak untruths (O.E. *leogan*).
 (2) To recline (O.E. *licgan*).
Bark : (1) The cry of a dog (O.E. *beorcan*).
 (2) The rind of a tree (Swedish *bark*).
 (3) A ship—spelt also *barque* (Low Lat. *barca*).
Date : (1) A fixed point of time (Lat. *datum*).
 (2) A fruit (Gk. *dactylos*).
Page : (1) A young male servant.
 (2) A side of a leaf of a book.
Yard : (1) A measure of 3 feet.
 (2) A small enclosure (O.E. *geard*).
Tear : (1) To pull apart (O.E. *teran*).
 (2) A drop exuding from the eye (O.E. *tear*).

Other examples are : bear, list, pound, till, race.

269. CHANGE IN MEANING—Words have altered their meaning considerably as the language has grown older ; and even now many are undergoing a process of change from year to year. This may occur in several ways :—

(1) **By Metaphor.** A word of simple direct meaning may be used metaphorically for something more abstruse ; its original meaning may then die out or it may still remain.

Thus we have literal (or primary) and derived (or secondary) meanings for many of our words ; as in the following examples :—

Primary	Secondary
to see an object	to see (= understand) what is meant
an iron <i>chain</i>	a <i>chain</i> of circumstances
to eat an apple	to eat one's words (= to apologise)
a <i>silver</i> watch	the <i>silver</i> moon
the stone is <i>hard</i>	a <i>hard</i> task
to seize a person	to seize an opportunity
the water has <i>cooled</i>	his anger has <i>cooled</i>
the <i>light</i> of a lamp	<i>light</i> upon a subject
he was <i>rushing</i> down the street	the <i>rushing</i> wind

The word *prevent* originally had the literal meaning of "go before" as in : "*Prevent* us, O Lord, in all our doings." From this the meaning gradually changed to "*hinder*"—its present meaning ; and the literal meaning became obsolete. So also *fulfil* originally meant literally to "fill full" as in : "That we may be *fulfilled* with Thy grace and heavenly benediction" ; and *reduce*, to lead back, as in : "To *reduce* a straying brother to the truth."

(2) **By Specialisation.** The meaning of some words has been greatly restricted or narrowed. Thus *acre* originally meant a *field*—a meaning still current in the phrase "God's acre" (= churchyard) : now *acre* is applied only to a piece of land of a certain area. The following are other instances :—

Vulgar: (1) Original meaning: *general*; still retained in the phrase "the *vulgar* tongue."
(2) Present meaning: *low, base*.

Charity: (1) Original meaning: *love*; as in: "the greatest of these is *charity*."

(2) Present meaning: *giving to the poor*.

Brave: (1) Original meaning: *fine* in any respect; as in: "this *brave* o'erhanging firmament!"

(2) Present meaning: *courageous*.

This process is still going on in the language: thus the word *gas* (meaning any substance in a certain physical state) is commonly applied to the gas we use for illuminating purposes. So "the paper" commonly stands for "the newspaper"; "the Psalms" for those of David; "the House" for "Parliament."

(3) **By Generalisation.** This is the converse of (2). Thus *triumph* originally referred to the procession of a victorious general on his return home, as in: "To see Cæsar and to rejoice in his *triumph*." Now *triumph* is used for any success. So also we have:—

Influence: (1) Originally, the power supposed to be exercised by the stars over a man's life.

(2) Now, any power affecting a person's conduct.

Miscreant: (1) Originally, an *unbeliever*.

(2) Now, an *evil-doer*.

Some words have become so far generalised in meaning as to be able to take an apparently contradictory qualifying word, such compounds as tin box, beef-tea, etc., being formed [§ 248 (12)].

(4) **By Degradation.** Many words with dignified meanings have acquired a less dignified (often ludicrous or evil) meaning. Thus *knave* originally meant a young male servant: as in: "Gentle *knave*, good night." Now it signifies a rascal.

So also we have:—

Silly: (1) Original meaning: *blessed*; then *innocent* as in: "There he met a *silly* old palmer."

(2) Present meaning: *foolish*.

Officious: (1) Originally *busy*, as in: "Be every one *officious* to make this banquet."

(2) Now, *meddlesome*.

Gossip: (1) Originally, a *sponsor* at baptism.

(2) Now, an *idle talker*.

Cunning: (1) Originally, *skilful* as in: "Nature's own sweet and *cunning* hand laid on."

(2) Now, *deceitful*.

The words *dub*, *paie*, *nap*, *imp* were once perfectly serious words; now they are used humorously.

(5) **By Elevation.** This is the converse of (4). *Shrewd* once meant *wicked*, as in "That *shrewd* and knavish sprite." Cf. also "Taming of the Shrew." Now the word means *clever, far-seeing*.

Christian was once a term of reproach ; now, of honour.

So also :—

Minister : (1) Originally, a *servant* as in : "Let him be your *minister*."
(2) Now, a dignified title.

Politician : (1) Originally, an *intriguer*, as in : "This vile *politician* Bolingbroke."

(2) Now, a member of a political party or a statesman.

There are fewer examples of Elevation than of Degradation of words.

270. STRUCTURE OF WORDS—Words have been formed, and are to-day being formed, by combination of simpler words or by addition of particles to words. This process, which may be called **Word-building**, takes place chiefly in two ways :—

(1) By compounding two or more words : *e.g.* hearsay, folk-lore.

(2) By addition of a Prefix or Suffix to a word : *e.g.* *pre*-eminent, *sub*marine, *manly*, *duckling*.

Many such combinations and additions had been already made in words before their introduction into English. We shall now consider these subjects in greater detail.

271. COMPOUND WORDS consist, for the most part, of Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives. A hyphen sometimes separates the parts of a compound word, particularly when the compound is of fairly recent formation. Compounds of ancient origin are often disguised to such an extent as to be unrecognisable as compounds ; thus the word *orchard* is compounded of "wort" and "yard."

Nouns are formed from :—

(1) Noun + Noun or Gerund : manservant, railway, motor-car, walking-stick.

(2) Noun + Adjective or Participle : blackboard, blue-stocking, redbreast.

(3) Verb + Noun (often object) : toothpick, watershed, sunshine, hold-all.

(4) Noun + Adverb or Preposition : upland, outhouse, at-home.

(5) Verb + Adverb or Preposition : farewell, send-off, onset, outlet.

Verbs are formed from :—

(1) Verb + Adverb or Preposition : withstand, undermine, ill-treat, out-distance.

(2) Verb + Adjective or Noun (not very common) : whitewash, safeguard, star-gaze, typewrite.

Adjectives are formed from :—

(1) Adjective + Noun : headstrong, world-wide, sky-blue.

(2) Adjective + Adjective or Participle : white-hot, dull-grey, good-looking, half-eaten.

(3) Adjective + Adverb : ill-gotten, never-ending, well-deserved.

(4) Noun + Preposition : inland, uphill.

(5) Noun + Participle or Gerund : church-going, money-making, poverty-stricken.

Phrase Compounds consist of phrases of two or more words joined together to form various Parts of Speech : the separate parts of the new word are usually hyphenated. Examples : notwithstanding, will-o'-the-wisp, toad-in-the-hole, forget-me-not.

272. FUNCTIONS OF PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES—

Prefixes usually modify the *meaning* of the word before which they are placed. Thus we have the word *pose*, and by aid of various prefixes we obtain the following words, each of which has a different meaning, though that meaning always has some connection with the original root *pose* (=place) : *compose*, *depose*, *dispose*, *impose*, *oppose*, *propose*, *suppose*.

Suffixes, on the other hand, usually (though not always) modify the grammatical function of the word ; very frequently they alter its Part of Speech. Thus from *man* (Noun) is formed *manly* (Adj.) ; from *sweet* is formed *sweetness* (Abs. Noun) ; from *bear* (Verb) is formed *bearer* (Noun). But in *poetess* from *poet*, *duckling* from *duck*, the meaning and not the grammatical function is modified.

In order to illustrate this method of formation of words we add a few specimens of the commonest Prefixes and Suffixes of Classical and Teutonic origin, together with examples of words formed by their aid.

273. PREFIXES—

Latin or Greek Origin :

Ad- (ac-, as-, etc.)=to. Adjust, advent, accustom, assist.
Com- (con-, co-)=with. Combine, connect, co-operate.
Ex- (e-)=out of. Express, exit, evade, educate.
Re- =back, again. Recede, reduce, re-enter.
Sub- (suff-, etc.)=under. Substance, subvert, suffix.
Mono- (mon-)=only. Monarch, monotone, monad.
Syn- (sym-)=with. Synthesis, sympathy, symphony.

Teutonic Origin :

A- =on. Aside, aboard, adrift.
Mid- =middle. Midnight, midsummer.
Mis- =wrong. Misdeed, mistake, misappropriate.
Un- =reverse. Undo, unkind, untie.
With- =against. Withstand, withhold.

274. SUFFIXES—

Latin or Greek Origin :

-ess forms Feminine. Poetess, lioness.
-esque „ Adjectives (=like). Picturesque, grotesque.
-ion (-tion, -sion) forms Nouns, mainly Abstract. Tradition, transition.
-ic forms Nouns, mainly scientific terms. Logic, arithmetic, music.
-ism „ Nouns. Schism, aneurism, realism.
-ment „ Nouns from Verbs. Judgment, settlement.

Teutonic Origin :

-hood forming Abstract Nouns (=state). Manhood, childhood.
-ling „ Diminutives. Gosling, duckling.
-ness „ Abstract Nouns (=state). Goodness, gentleness.
-ship „ „ „ (=property). Worship, kingship.
-ful „ Adjectives (=full of). Shameful, hopeful.

NOTE.—Two useful exercises may be worked by the student (especially if he is unacquainted with Latin and Greek) :—

- (1) To separate prefixes and suffixes from the word to which they have been added, and thus to determine their meaning or function.
- (2) From a list of words, all containing a certain prefix or suffix, to discover its meaning or function.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XX.

1. Mention any words that are said to be synonymous. Are they really so? Show how synonyms tend to acquire different shades of meaning. (M)

2. Give examples of words which in the course of history have (a) Narrowed their meaning, (b) Widened their meaning, (c) Degraded their meaning. (M)

3. Explain the meanings of the following words, and write sentences containing them : co \ddot{a} lition, ephemeral, reprisal, aphorism, permeate, parsimonious, reduplicate.

4. Find Antonyms to the following words, and write sentences containing the Antonyms : glad, courage, clever, kind, hope, new, ancient, easy, never, well.

5. Name any ten words introduced into the language during the last century, and explain their meaning.

6. Find a Synonym for each of the following words and explain the difference between the members of each pair thus formed : house, labour, pleasant, crowd, put, buy, see, gracious, holy, worry.

7. Write sentences to illustrate the meanings of the following words : pertinacious, realistic, psychical, academic, mendicant, cataleptic, cryptic, referendum, atrophy.

8. Explain and illustrate the various meanings of : second, measure, mate, pound, way.

9. Distinguish between, and write sentences to illustrate : principal, principle ; respectfully, respectively ; useless, futile ; converse, reverse ; perspicuity, perspicacity ; law, rule ; old, ancient.

10. Distinguish between the uses or meanings of : few, a few ; with, by ; beside, besides ; assent, consent ; precise, exact ; aphorism, proverb ; physician, physicist ; obsolete, archaic ; fresh, new ; dissimulation, deceit. (M)

11. Compose sentences that distinguish the meanings of these words : induce, induct ; hermitical, hermetical ; indigent, indignant ; manage, menage ; deprecate and depreciate. (M)

12. Distinguish between : imperial, imperious ; esteem, estimation ; reverent, reverend ; millinery, millenary ; filter, philtre ; contemptible, contemptuous ; and write sentences containing each word in its special sense. (M)

13. What is the difference in meaning between : virtual, virtuous ; nearest, next ; politic, political ; monitory, monetary ; conscious, aware ; outer, utter ? (M)

14. Distinguish between the meanings of : beneficent, benevolent ; judicious, judicial ; sensuous, sensual ; continuous, continual ; expedient, expeditious ; deficient, defective ; efficient, effective ; exceedingly, excessively ; presumptive, presumptuous ; stimulus, stimulant. (M)

15. Construct six sentences, using each of the following words in an appropriate sense :—

(i) Docile, tractable, ductile.

(ii) Satire, irony, sarcasm. (M)

17. With regard to any one of the words : *post, line, foot*, say (i) in what various senses it is used, (ii) how these senses may be connected with each other. Add sentences in illustration. (M)

18. Write short sentences, containing, respectively, one of the following words, and explain precisely, the meaning you attach to each : scope, prohibitive, limbo, crucial, reciprocity. (M)

19. Give the ordinary meaning conveyed by each of the following expressions, and connect it with the original literal signification of the words in italics :—

(a) A *threadbare* argument.

(b) He reckons without his *host*.

- (c) He is just in his *element*.
- (d) He is out of his proper *sphere*.
- (e) I *endorse* all that he has said.
- (f) To *sum* up the arguments. (M)

20. What is the meaning of the final syllable in : oxen, golden, darken, bounden, duckling, streamlet, readable, singer, peaceful, faithless ?

21. Write four words beginning with each of the following prefixes, and thence deduce the meaning of the prefix : e, ob, re, super, inter, un.

22. Write three words ending with each of the following suffixes, and thence deduce the meaning of the suffix : -ish, -ist, -let, -dom, -fy, -ly.

23. Take each of the following words and to it add a prefix or a suffix ; explain in each instance what change in the meaning or function of the word has been made : serve, hope, friend, effect, collect, judge, stand, act.

24. Form Nouns from *hate, sweet, royal* ; Adjectives from *man, dust, admire* ; Adverbs from *holy, fast, pretty*.

25. In each of the following sentences substitute one word for the phrase in italics :—

- (1) His methods of business are *not allowed by law*.
- (2) His conduct was *such as deserved praise*.
- (3) He was *practically without any money*.
- (4) Their behaviour is *not capable of explanation*.
- (5) This doctrine is *one which was current in the Middle Ages*.
- (6) The main facts of the play are *to be found in history*.
- (7) His remarks were *not loud enough to be heard*.
- (8) The bite of that serpent is *likely to cause death*.
- (9) He listened to the conversation, *although not wishing to do so*.
- (10) He is *one who does everything for the sake of money*.
- (11) His general appearance is *like that of a king*.
- (12) His appointment is *only for a time*.

CHAPTER XXI

INDIRECT SPEECH

275. **D**IRECT SPEECH consists of the exact words of a speaker whether uttered by him or written down : *e.g.* "It gives me great pleasure to be here this evening."

Indirect or **Reported Speech** consists of the report of the speech subsequent to its occurrence ; the words above mentioned would be reported as :—

The speaker said that it gave him great pleasure to be there that evening. The words in the Indirect Speech which differ from those in the Direct are printed in italics.

276. **RULES FOR CHANGE** from Direct to Indirect. The above example illustrates most of the rules to be observed. These may be summarised as follows :—

(1) The Report begins with an **Introductory Clause** and a **Conjunction**, such as "he said that . . .," "he hoped that . . .," "he asked whether . . .," unless suitable words happen to begin the speech. A similar introductory clause should be repeated occasionally to give variety to the report.

(2) In accordance with the laws of Sequence of Tenses (§ 106) a **Present Tense** is changed to a **Past**, and similarly a **Future** becomes a **Conditional** statement : *e.g.*

Direct : "I think that you will agree with what I have said."

Indirect : He *thought* that they *would* agree with what he *had* said.

(3) All words signifying **presence** or **proximity** in **Time** or **Place** are changed into corresponding words signifying **distance** **away** in **Time** or **Place** : *e.g.*

Direct : "Those who were here yesterday will remember this quotation."

Indirect : He said that those who were *there the day before* would remember *that* quotation.

Thus the words: Now, to-day, yesterday, last week, here, these (Direct), become: Then, that day, the day before, the previous week, there, those (Indirect).

(4) **Pronouns** are changed in **Person**. If, as is usually the case, the speech is reported by an independent witness such as a reporter, all persons are levelled to the **Third**. Possessive Adjectives undergo a corresponding change. Example:—

Direct: "While you support me so loyally, it will always be a pleasure to me to carry out your wishes as far as lies in my power."

Indirect: While *they* supported *him* so loyally, it would always be a pleasure to *him* to carry out *their* wishes as far as lay in *his* power.

If the speech is reported by the person as applying to himself, the Second Person becomes the First instead of the Third: *e.g.*

Direct: I tell you that you are mistaken.

Indirect: He told *me* that *I* was mistaken.

277. CERTAIN LITTLE DIFFICULTIES arise in converting Direct into Indirect Speech.

(1) **Imperatives** (*a*) require an **Introductory Clause** such as "He urged them . . .," "He commanded them . . .," and (*b*) are then changed to the **Infinitive**, or, less commonly, to the **Subjunctive**, or are rendered by *must* with the Infinitive: *e.g.*

Direct: "Resist such injustice and do not be deceived by specious words."

Indirect: He urged them to resist such injustice and not to be deceived by specious words.

Direct: Be quiet and listen to what I say.

Indirect: He insisted that they should be quiet and listen to what he said.

(2) **A Nominative of Address** or an **Exclamation** or **Interjection** presents some difficulty.

(*a*) Sometimes it may be omitted altogether in the report: *e.g.*

Direct: "I believe, gentlemen, that you have heard this before."

Indirect: He believed that they had heard that before.

- (b) Sometimes a **slight change** of the Nominative of Address will suffice : *e.g.*

Direct : "You all know, ladies and gentlemen, what a pleasure it is."

Indirect : He said that *all those present* knew what a pleasure it was . . .

- (c) Sometimes an explanatory phrase must be added because an *action* of the speaker is lost to those who afterwards read the speech :

Direct : "And I am sure that you, Mr Chairman, will bear me out . . ."

Indirect : *Turning to the Chairman he said that he was sure that he would bear him out . . .*

- (3) A **Question** usually requires an Introduction, such as "He asked whether . . ." : *e.g.*

Direct : "Will you vote for a man with such a policy?"

Indirect : *He asked them whether they would vote for a man with such a policy.*

Sometimes, however, it is left as a question : *e.g.*

Would they vote for a man with such a policy?

- (4) **Ambiguity of Third Persons.** Since it usually happens that all Persons are levelled to the Third, doubt may arise as to who is meant by "he," "they," etc. In such cases the name or office of the person referred to should replace the Pronoun, or be introduced in parenthesis after the Pronoun : *e.g.*

Direct : "You have not brought your book."

Indirect : He said that *he (the boy)* had not brought his book ;
or, *The master* said that *the boy* had not brought his book.

278. EXAMPLE—

Direct : "I assure you, my friends, that I for my part, will do all I possibly can to resist this measure. You know that I have always been opposed to it ; as recently as yesterday I spoke against it here in this very hall. Do you think that the people of this country will tolerate such injustice ? I am sure they will not. My opponent openly supports the measure ; may he fail through that support ! Prepare for a great struggle ; influence all your friends, and we shall win in the end. Explain to them as I have explained to you that their liberty is at stake. To-morrow I shall again speak on this same subject, when, I hear, you,

Mr Chairman, will again kindly give me your support. I thank you all, ladies and gentlemen, for your kind attention to me to-night."

Indirect : *He assured those present that he for his part would do all he possibly could to resist that measure. They knew that he had always been opposed to it ; as recently as the day before he had spoken against it there in that very hall. Did they think, he asked, that the people of this country would tolerate such injustice ? He was sure they would not. His opponent openly supported the measure ; he (the speaker) hoped that he might fail through that support. He urged them to prepare for a great struggle ; they must influence all their friends and they would win in the end. The audience should explain to their friends as he had explained to them that their liberty was at stake. On the next day, he said, he should again speak on that same subject, when, he heard, the Chairman would again kindly give him his support. He thanked all those present for their kind attention to him that night.*

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXI.

1. Change the following into Reported Speech :—

- (1) I come not, friends, to steal away your hearts. ✕
- (2) Fear not : for am I in the place of God ?
- (3) This day is this scripture fulfilled in your ears.
- (4) Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition. ...
- (5) Will you not come to-morrow and hear what our friends have to say about this important matter ?
- (6) Had I but served my God with half the zeal I served my king, He would not in mine age Have left me naked to mine enemies. ✕
- (7) What do you want ? And why have you come here to disturb me at this hour of the day ?
- (8) Well done, good and faithful servant ; enter thou into the joy of thy Lord.
- (9) Sweet son ! God give you good perseverance ! You are my son, for most loyally have you acquitted yourself this day and you are worthy of a crown.
- (10) You ask me, gentlemen, what I mean by such a proposal as this. My answer to-day is the answer that I have always given to this question. Unless you provide an efficiently trained force for home-defence, this country can never be secure from the dangers of invasion.

2. Change the following into Direct Speech :—

- (1) She promised to betray the hill to them if they would give her what they wore on their left arms.
- (2) He proposed that Cæsar should disband his army by a certain date, and that, if he did not do so, he should be regarded as an enemy of the state.
- (3) She asked Alfred why he did not turn the bread which he saw burning. He was glad enough, she affirmed, to eat it before it was half-baked.
- (4) He could not, he declared, do better than repeat to that assembly the statement which he had made there in that very hall the previous day, that whatever happened, the integrity of the Empire must be preserved.

- (5) He replied that if it lay in his power to remedy these matters he would not hesitate to do so then and there. All that he could do was to raise the question in the House, and that, he promised them, should be done on the following day.
3. Change the following into Indirect Speech :—
- (1) He said to me : “ As you have done your work, you may go now.”
- (2) She said to him : “ Have you been here long ? ” He replied : “ No, I have only just arrived.”
- (3) “ Why,” demanded he, “ do you persist in holding this opinion ? ” “ I still hold it,” I replied, “ because I have heard no argument that disproves it.”
- (4) The master said to us : “ You have evidently done no work while I was out of the room. I shall detain all of you this evening.”
- (5) “ Do you really think,” exclaimed he, “ that there will be war with Turkey ? ” “ I am afraid there will be,” I replied.
- (6) “ I carry here peace and war,” said Fabius. “ Choose ye which ye will.” “ Give us which you will,” was the reply. “ Then take war,” said Fabius. “ We accept the gift,” cried the Senators of Carthage.
4. Turn the following passages into Reported Speech :—
- (1) As to the wealth which the Colonies have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought those acquisitions of value, for they seemed even to excite your envy ; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised your esteem and admiration. And pray, Sir, what in the world is equal to it ? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the people of New England have of late carried on the whale fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson’s Bay and Davis’s Strait ; whilst we are looking for them beneath the Arctic Circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the Antipodes. (M)
- (2) If we are afraid that the people may attempt to accomplish their wishes by unlawful means, let us give them a solemn pledge that we will use in their cause all our high and ancient privileges, so often victorious in old conflicts with tyranny ; those privileges which our ancestors invoked, not in vain, on the day when a faithless king filled our house with his guards, took his seat, Sir, on your chair, and saw your predecessor kneeling on the floor before him. The Constitution of England, thank God, is not one of those constitutions which are past repair, and which must, for the public welfare, be utterly destroyed. (M)
- (3) But, my Lords, who is the man that, in addition to the disgraces and mischiefs of the war, has dared to authorise and associate to our arms the tomahawk and scalping-knife of

the savage?—to delegate to the merciless Indian the defence of disputed rights, and to wage the horrors of his barbarous war against our brethren? . . . But, my Lords, this barbarous measure has been defended, not only on the principles of policy and necessity, but also on those of morality. "For it is perfectly allowable," says Lord Suffolk, "to use all the means which God and nature have put into our hands." I am astonished, I am shocked, to hear such principles confessed; to hear them avowed in this House, or in this country.

- (4) As for me I have chosen my part. I will remain here, while there is one to bear me company. If there be any so craven as to shrink from sharing the dangers of our glorious enterprise, let them go home in God's name. There is still one vessel left. Let them take that and return to Cuba. They can tell there how they deserted their comrades and their commander, and patiently wait till we return laden with the spoils of the Aztecs.
- (5) Observe now, Cataline; mark the silence and composure of this assembly. Does a single senator remonstrate, or so much as offer to speak? Is it needful that they should confirm by their voice what they so expressly declare by their silence? But had I addressed myself in this manner to that excellent youth Publius Sextus, or to the brave Marcus Marcellus, the senate would ere now have risen up against me and laid violent hands upon their consul in this very temple; and justly too. But with regard to you, Cataline, their silence declares their approbation, their acquiescence amounts to a decree, and by saying nothing they proclaim their consent.

5. Turn the following passages into Direct Speech:—

- (1) As for the command of that town, he rejoiced not in it, but looked upon it as a great burden; yet since it was conferred as an honour on him, he should not decline serving them who had thought him worthy of it, unless it gave distaste to any of those present, which, if it did, he would esteem it an obligation if they would but declare it before he published his commission.
- (2) The prince told the old man that he had already enjoyed too much, and begged him to give him something to desire. The old man replied that if he (the prince) had seen the miseries of the world, he would know how to value his present state. The prince exclaimed that he had given him something to desire; he should long to see the miseries of the world since the sight of them was necessary to happiness.
- (3) Wat told his men that that was the king over there. He would go, he said, and speak with him and tell him what they wanted. Wat then rode up to the king and asked him whether he saw all his (Wat's) men there? The king answered that he did, but demanded why he asked that question? Wat replied that they were all at his command and had sworn to do whatever he bade them.

CHAPTER XXII

COMPOSITION: THE SENTENCE AND PARAGRAPH

279. COMPOSITION consists of the written expression of our ideas on any given subject in the best possible manner. In composition, two main factors are therefore essential: *matter* and *manner*. We must have some ideas on the subject about which we propose to write; and we must be able to express our opinions satisfactorily.

We shall have something to say in the next chapter concerning the *matter* for composition; at present we shall confine ourselves mainly to a consideration of the *manner* of its production.

280. THEORY AND PRACTICE—All educational ideals are based on the doctrine that *theory* and *practice* should go hand-in-hand where possible. It would be absurd, for instance, for anyone to study the whole theory of Engineering, even in the most elementary way, before attempting any practical work; and it would be equally absurd to go through all the practical work without studying the theory on which that work is based. As advance in practical skill is attained, more and more of the theory must be grasped by the student, unless he wishes to remain a mere labourer all his life.

These remarks apply with especial force to the art of **Composition**. The student needs from the very outset to be able to express his ideas in writing; not only because writing is, for the most part, the examination test of knowledge, but also because, when we have to explain a thing in writing, we are bound to attain to a much clearer and more accurate knowledge of our subject.

281. PROGRESS IN COMPOSITION—It may therefore be assumed that before the student has read any account of the theory of composition, perhaps before he is acquainted with

any grammar, he has written English *after a fashion*. And in Composition, of all subjects, everyone has a certain basis on which to build—his natural power of speech. Yet even if his speech is accurate and grammatical, he may not necessarily write very well or very freely; for in writing, ideas have to be expressed without gesture or emphasis of the voice.

Certainly those who have been taught to speak well and carefully, will find Composition so much the easier; and practice will do a great deal to make everyone perfect. But it will not do everything; for it is quite possible that all our practice may lead us in the wrong direction, and confirm in us certain errors or bad habits, unless we have some guide to point out the right road and to warn us of the pitfalls by the wayside.

Our last few chapters have dealt with preparatory matter which is of the highest importance in this respect; a careful study of those chapters and practice in working out the exercises thereon will be of great service in eliminating much that is faulty in our diction. The next few chapters will deal with the subject of composition from a practical point of view, by showing how the Sentence, Paragraph, and Essay should be constructed.

282. THE SENTENCE—the simplest possible form of composition—has already been defined as the expression of a thought.

As a thought may be simple or complicated, so a sentence may be **short** or **long**. We may have a sentence in the one word: *Go!*; or we may have a long and involved Complex or Compound Sentence.

283. LENGTH OF SENTENCE—The genius of the English language, like that of the French on which its style is largely modelled, is, on the whole, better suited to *short* sentences than to long ones. The beginner will do well to cut down the length of his sentences everywhere; for him short sentences should be the rule rather than the exception. It is only too natural to many people to “prattle,” *i.e.* to talk (or write) on vaguely and at great length without any pause or connection until their breath (or their pen) fails them, after the manner of the celebrated Mrs Gamp.

The student must discipline himself against this habit; such

a style, besides being inelegant, tends to obscurity of meaning and muddling of the grammar and of the construction of the sentences. The best corrective is the use of *short connected sentences*, with plenty of full stops (§ 230).

Further experience will show him that the *art* of English composition consists in the *successful* variation of the length of sentences as well as of their form.

We shall now consider some of the merits and defects of the structure of sentences and paragraphs.

284. A succession of very short disconnected sentences generally produces an impression of monotony. The reader is wearied by the abruptness and apparent irrelevance with which each statement is thrust upon him. The following is, perhaps, an extreme instance :—

“ John wished to visit his friend. He took the train to the city. His friend lived in George Street. He walked there from the station. He found the house. It was locked up. His friend had gone away to Germany.”

This series of sentences should be condensed and connected together in the manner to be presently indicated (§ 298).

It must, however, be here pointed out that short sentences do sometimes give a vividness, a realism, to a description of stirring events, especially if such sentences are varied in *form* (§ 292). Lord Macaulay was especially successful in this style of composition: see his *Essays on Clive*, etc. We quote a beautiful and effective passage from Dowden consisting almost entirely of short sentences :—

“ The life of Brutus, as the lives of such men must be, was a good life in spite of its disastrous fortunes. He had found no man who was not true to him. And he had known Portia. The idealist was predestined to fail in the positive world. But for him the true failure would have been disloyalty to his ideals. Of such failure he suffered none. Octavius and Mark Antony remained victors at Philippi. Yet the purest wreath rests on the forehead of the defeated conspirator.”

285. A series of long sentences, or indeed one very long and involved sentence, produces an even worse effect than that indicated in the first part of the last paragraph, but in the opposite direction. The reader is perplexed by the number of ideas the

sentence contains ; the rule that the sentence should be the expression of only *one* thought is broken. Unless such a sentence is studied carefully and read through time after time, the thread of continuity is lost, and the connection between the various parts is not apparent.

Further such a sentence, unless in very skilful hands, is apt to lose its grammatical structure altogether. A very good test of the correctness of the latter is whether the sentence can be analysed satisfactorily. If it is found, for instance, that clauses are uncompleted, or that some word which is evidently a subject has no predicate, the sentence is obviously bad and needs reconstruction.

To illustrate the effect produced by a long and involved sentence we quote the following from Hawkins' Voyages :—

“ Launching out into the channel, the wind being at east by south and east-south-east, which, blowing hard, and a flood in hand, caused a chapping sea, and my vice-admiral bearing a good sail *made* some water, and shooting off a piece of ordnance, I edged towards *her*, to know the cause ; *who* answered me, that they had sprung a great leak, and that of force they must return into the sound ; which, seeing to be necessary, I cast about where anchoring, and going aboard, presently found, that betwixt wind and water the caulkers had left a seam uncaulked, which, being filled up with pitch only, the sea labouring that out, had been sufficient to have sunk her in short space if it had not been discovered in time.”

What are we to make of all this? The sentence rambles on from one thing to another without aim or object. The construction is, to say the least, doubtful. What, for instance, is the antecedent of *who* (italicised above), and to whom does *her* (italicised) refer? Is *made* (italicised) a Finite Verb, or should it be the Participle *having made*?

The sentence should be broken up into three or four shorter sentences and recast in the manner indicated in § 297.

286. THE PARAGRAPH—The above considerations naturally lead us to the consideration of the *paragraph*, which is a collection of sentences bearing on the same idea or set of ideas. It should in fact be a *division* of the subject in hand. Thus if we were writing a short account of the Wars of the Roses, one paragraph might be devoted to the causes of the wars, a second

to the battles fought, a third to the final results, and so on. Each paragraph would contain several sentences. The sentence from Hawkins (§ 285) might well have formed a paragraph of several sentences.

287. LENGTH OF PARAGRAPH—Like the Sentence, the Paragraph may be *long* or *short*. Modern writers lean towards short paragraphs; this is no doubt due to the fact that a subject is much more easily grasped if the matter is divided up into short paragraphs, particularly if such paragraphs are prefaced by suitable headings. Newspapers furnish good examples of such paragraphing under appropriate headings. It should be remembered that in any form of composition both the eye and the ear should be pleased. The end of a paragraph is a relief to the attention; if the paragraph is too long, the eye is apt to pass on to the next involuntarily. How wearisome we should find our newspaper if the whole of it (like the leading article) were written in the form of an essay and unparagraphed! As a matter of fact, the earliest newspapers were thus arranged.

288. QUALITIES OF THE PARAGRAPH—We may now consider the essential features of a good paragraph. They are chiefly:—

- (1) Unity.
- (2) Development.
- (3) Variety in length of sentences.
- (4) Variety in form of sentences.

289. UNITY—There should be a central idea on which the paragraph is based, and there should be no doubt in the mind of the writer or reader as to what this central or main idea is. There must be no rambling from the particular portion or aspect of the subject to another (and perhaps more interesting) portion or aspect. In writing a piece of composition we cannot, of course, indicate the central idea contained in the paragraph by putting a heading to it, as a newspaper or text-book can do; but it is a good plan to begin each paragraph about an inch from the left of the paper, so as to mark it off clearly from the preceding one. The student will find it a helpful rule to ask himself: Can the

substance of each of my paragraphs be summarised in a single sentence? If so, the condition of Unity is satisfied.

290. DEVELOPMENT—Around the central idea other subordinate ideas connected with it should be grouped, in as natural a manner as possible, according to their order and importance. If we are dealing with historical events, the natural order will be mainly chronological; in any case the order must be *logical*, every sentence following smoothly after the preceding one, and helping the argument forward one more stage, in the manner of a proposition in Geometry.

291. VARIETY IN LENGTH OF SENTENCES—We have already discussed the merits and defects of short and long sentences; the conclusion at which we should have arrived is that the great charm of successful composition depends largely on its variety. Though no hard and fast rule can be laid down, it is often well to begin a paragraph with one or two short sentences, then to follow with a fairly long sentence describing the matter in hand, and to conclude with a short sentence which tersely sums up the whole.

292. VARIETY IN FORM OF SENTENCES—Equally important with variety in length is variety in form: the sentences should not all begin in the same way, nor should they continue in the same manner. The following paragraph will illustrate what is to be avoided:—

“ William in 1066 invaded England, which was then ruled by Harold. He won the battle of Hastings, which laid the foundation of the conquest of the whole country. He introduced the Feudal System which was then current in Continental Europe. He put down several rebellions which were raised by the English.”

The intolerable effect of this paragraph is due, not so much to the fact that the sentences are all of about the same length, as that they are all of the same structure. We may notice that:—

- (1) All but the first begin with the pronoun *he*.
- (2) All consist of a principal clause followed by a relative clause beginning with *which*.

For correction of this paragraph see § 296.

As to the methods by which variety of form may be obtained, again no hard and fast rules can be laid down, but a few hints will be found of service.

293. VARIATION OF THE FORM of sentences in a paragraph.

(1) The sentences should not begin *with the same words*. It is not always possible, nor is it necessary, that *every* sentence should begin with a different word, but it is useful for the beginner to try to carry out this principle within reasonable limits. The fault of constantly beginning with "He" or "I" should be specially avoided; repetition of the latter, in addition to being bad style, is also bad taste.

Neither should the sentences begin *in the same way*. Some writers are very fond of beginning with words or phrases like: "and so," "thus," "then," "therefore." It is good practice to endeavour to begin each sentence with *a different part of speech*, though this again is not always possible or convenient. A little effort in this direction will not only help in overcoming monotony in this respect, but will also aid in the development of each sentence on different lines, as will now be shown.

(2) The sentences should be varied in *type of construction* throughout. There are at least six different types of sentence: the Simple sentence in its elementary form, the Simple sentence with a participial phrase, the Compound sentence, and the three kinds of Complex sentence. The Complex sentence may also be varied by placing either the principal or the subordinate clause first. We can generally, for the sake of variety, change from one of these types to another without vitally altering the meaning, though it is rarely possible to express the same idea by all the six types.

Thus we may say:—

- (a) He saw me and at once delivered the message (Co-ord.).
 Seeing
 Having seen } me, he at once . . . (Simple with partic.
 phrase).
 As soon as he had seen me, he delivered . . . (Adverbial +
 Princ.).
- (b) He won his laurels as a general and then became a famous statesman (Co-ord.).

He, who had won his laurels as a general, became . . . (Princ. + Adj.).

After he had won his laurels as a general, he became . . . (Adv. + Princ.).

(c) He replied to my question and said that he was satisfied (Co-ord. + Noun).

He replied to my question and expressed his satisfaction (Co-ord.).

In reply to my question, he said that . . . (Phrase + Princ. + Noun).

In deciding which type of sentence to employ, four things should be considered:—

(1) Which is the simplest and most straightforward.

(2) If, as often happens, there is a shade of difference in the meaning, which is most suitable to our purpose.

(3) Which serves the purpose of variety the best.

(4) Which sounds best to the ear.

It will generally be found that only one of the types satisfies *all* these requirements; that particular one should then be selected.

294. SPECIMEN PARAGRAPH—We may now fitly consider a paragraph which appears to fulfil the requirements just laid down. For this purpose we quote a beautiful passage from Lowell's Essay on Spenser:—

"We are wont to apologise for the grossness of our favourite authors sometimes by saying that their age was to blame and not they; and the excuse is a good one, for often it is the frank word that shocks us while we tolerate the thing. Spenser needs no such extenuations. No man can read the "Faery Queen" and be anything but the better for it. Through that rude age, when Maids of Honour drank beer for breakfast and Hamlet could say a gross thing to Ophelia, he passes serenely abstracted and high, the Don Quixote of poets. Whoever can endure unmixed delight, whoever can tolerate music and painting and poetry all in one, whoever wishes to be rid of thought and to let the busy anvils of the brain be silent for a time, let him read in the "Faery Queen." There is a land of pure heart's ease, where no ache or sorrow of spirit can enter."

In this paragraph we have:—

(1) Unity. The paragraph may be summarised in the sentence:—

Spenser's works, besides being beautiful, are also pure.

(2) Development. The first sentence is introductory, stating what we usually have to do for poets—apologise for their grossness.

The second strikes the keynote of the paragraph by asserting that Spenser needs no such apology; and the third, fourth, and fifth develop this argument by comparison, contrast, and reference. The last sentence forms a beautiful and effective conclusion to the whole paragraph.

(3) **Variety in length of sentence.** This is obvious at a glance: a fairly long sentence is followed by two short ones; then a moderate sentence by a fairly long one; and, in conclusion, a short sentence. No sentence is over-long.

(4) **Variety in form of sentence.** This is equally pleasing. No two sentences begin with the same word; and five out of the six happen to begin with different parts of speech. The development of each sentence is also greatly varied; note, for instance, what a complete change the fifth sentence is in form.

295. SPECIMEN EXERCISES—Several useful exercises—preliminary aids to composition—may now be worked. These will include:—

(1) Variation of the Type of a Sentence (see § 293).

(2) Analysis and reconstruction of a long and involved sentence.

(3) Synthesis of a series of short disconnected sentences into a few sentences of varied length and form.

(4) Condensation of a passage in which much repetition or verbiage occurs.

(5) Rearrangement of a passage in which facts are set down without regard to logical order.

296. VARIATION — As an illustration we will recast the example given in § 292:—

“In 1066 William invaded England and defeated king Harold at the battle of Hastings. This victory laid the foundation of the conquest of the whole country. Though several rebellions were raised in William's reign, they were speedily quelled. One of the most important acts of the Conqueror was the introduction of the Feudal System, then current in Continental Europe.”

297. ANALYSIS AND RECONSTRUCTION — Consider the sentence:—

"No doubt what you mean is, that if the king who is supreme lord of the nation and the parliament who with him makes the laws, were to agree, we will say, for argument's sake, that your head—the value of which may be intrinsically only a few pence, but to you a great deal more—should be removed from your body, loyal though that body might have been in their service, this might be done constitutionally, and actually without any trial, to which under ordinary circumstances all men are entitled, by merely suspending for the time being all acts dealing with the liberty and safety of the citizens of this land."

This passage may be reconstructed as follows:—

"No doubt your meaning is this. The king, as supreme lord of the nation, and the parliament, together make our laws and have power to rescind them. Suppose, for instance, that they agreed that your head, intrinsically worth only a few pence but a great deal more valuable to you, should be removed from your body. However loyal that body might have been in their service, you would be a doomed man. For although under ordinary circumstances all men are entitled to a trial, your execution might be carried out constitutionally and actually without such a trial, by the suspension for the time being of all laws dealing with the liberty and safety of the citizens of this land."

As a further example of this process, we will recast the passage from Hawkins in § 285:—

"We launched out into the channel with the wind blowing hard at east by south and east-south-east. This wind coupled with a flood tide made the sea choppy. As my vice-admiral's ship, though bearing good sail, made some water and shot off a piece of ordnance, I edged towards her to know the cause. My vice-admiral informed me that they had sprung a leak and must perforce return into the sound. Seeing this to be necessary, I cast about and anchoring there, went aboard, where I found that a seam had been left uncaulked by the caulkers. This seam had been filled up with pitch only; and, as the sea had laboured that out, the ship would have sunk in a short space if the damage had not been discovered in time."

The student should consider how far these paragraphs fulfil the conditions of Unity, Development, and Variety.

298. SYNTHESIS—To illustrate this process we will recast the example given in § 284:—

"Wishing to visit his friend, John took the train to the city and walked to his friend's house which was situated in George Street. To his surprise, the house was locked up; and on enquiry he learnt that his friend had gone away to Germany."

It should be observed that it is possible to combine sentences only when they refer to ideas closely akin or in some way connected in our minds. If they express entirely dissimilar thoughts

they cannot be so combined without a breach of the principle of Unity.

Thus the sentences :

(1) The boy likes cricket

(2) The boy does not like study

may be combined as: "The boy likes cricket but he does not like study."

On the other hand, the sentences :

(1) The boy likes cricket

(2) The boy lives in London

cannot be combined as: "The boy likes cricket and lives in London," because the thoughts contained in the two sentences are entirely dissimilar. The two sentences must be left separate.

299. CONDENSATION—Consider the paragraph:—

"The orator addressed the meeting. The meeting consisted mainly of men and women. Some of the men and women had brought their children to the meeting. The orator in his speech said that he wished to tell all the men, women, and children at the meeting that the bill which the government had introduced was an unjust bill. The government was responsible for the bill and the government should bear the blame. The country should rise and show its indignation and its anger against the government who had brought in the bill. The country should express its anger freely and openly against the government. It had been said that Britons never should be slaves and they should not be slaves, they should not live in a state of serfdom, if they would do as he desired."

This may be condensed in the following manner:—

"Addressing the meeting which consisted of men and women with a few children, the orator affirmed that the bill which the government had introduced was unjust, and that the latter should bear the blame for it. He hoped that the country would show its indignation by opposing that bill with all its might. It had been said that Britons never should be slaves ; and they should not, if they did as he advised."

300. REARRANGEMENT—Consider the paragraph:—

"Edward III. lost the greater part of France in 1360. He won the battle of Crécy there in 1346. Before that in 1340 he had defeated the French in a naval fight at Sluys. The Black Prince led the army at Poitiers in 1356, where he gained a great victory. He won his spurs at Crécy. He was the eldest son of Edward III. The Treaty of Bretigny was signed in 1360. But in a few years only a small portion of France remained in the hands of the English. This war with France was called the Hundred Years' War. It was in 1337 that Edward III. claimed the French crown and thus the war began."

This passage should be arranged in chronological order, repetitions being avoided, in the following manner:—

“In 1337 Edward III. claimed the French throne and thus the Hundred Years' War began. He won a naval fight at Sluys in 1340, and six years later was victorious at Crécy, where his eldest son the Black Prince won his spurs. It was the latter who in 1356 led the English to victory at Poitiers. In 1360 the Treaty of Bretigny was signed; but a few years later only a small portion of France remained in the hands of the English.”

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXII

1. Change the Nominative Absolute in the following sentence into an Adverbial Clause (1) of Time, (2) of Reason:—

The enemy having fled, we occupied their camp.

2. Expand the following sentence by qualifying each word with an Adjective or Adverb:—

Men say Henry was mad.

3. Condense the following sentence by substituting a word or phrase for each subordinate clause (where possible):—

As soon as it was morning, Jacob arose from the place where he had slept, and set up what should serve as a memorial in stone to the goodness of God who had kept him so that his enemies could not hurt him.

4. Change the following Compound sentence into (1) a Simple sentence, (2) a Complex sentence consisting of Principal and Adverbial Clauses, (3) another kind of Complex sentence:—

He came to me and confessed his misdeeds.

5. Rewrite the following sentences so that they may sound better and at the same time express the meaning more clearly:—

(1) He said he was happy which as I ought to know was due, as he said, to his greatly benefited health owing to his summer holiday.

(2) He went to see the friends that had taken such care of him that he had recovered from the illness that had endangered his life.

(3) Whom you see is the man I meant when I spoke to you yesterday of him.

(4) Where has the boy, of whom I told you yesterday how clever he was, gone to while I have been away?

6. Change the following Simple sentence into a Complex sentence containing, (1) an Adverbial Clause, (2) an Adjectival Clause:—

At this season of the year the flowers so much admired by you begin to show themselves.

7. Change the following Simple sentence into (1) a Co-ordinate sentence, (2) a Complex sentence containing an Adverbial Clause, (3) a Complex sentence containing an Adjectival Clause:—

Meeting the man in the street, I spoke to him.

8. Change the following Complex sentence into, (1) a Simple sentence, (2) a Complex sentence containing a Noun Clause, (3) a Compound sentence:—

Your meaning is certainly not as clear as it ought to be.

9. Break up the following sentence into shorter sentences so as to make the meaning perfectly clear, without omitting anything material :—

I, Prospero, in this manner omitting to attend to business matters, being devoted entirely to retirement and to improving my mind with what, in my opinion, surpassed in value people's estimation, surpassed it in all ways except for the fact that being so retired might not be good for me, awoke a bad spirit in my false brother, and my trust was rewarded by him with treachery (just as, according to a common belief, a good parent often begets a bad son), a treachery as great in its position among the vices as my trust was in its position among the virtues, a trust which had indeed no end, a confidence without boundary.

10. Break up the following long and involved sentences into several sentences so as to form a paragraph :—

(1) Touching laws which are to serve men in this behalf, even as those laws of reason, which (man retaining his original integrity) had been sufficient to direct each particular person in all his affairs and duties, are not sufficient but require the access of other laws, now that man and his offspring are grown thus corrupt and sinful; again as those laws of polity and regiment, which would have served men living in public society together with that harmless disposition which then they should have had, are not able now to serve, when men's iniquity is so hardly restrained within any tolerable bounds: in like manner the national laws of mutual commerce between societies of that former and better quality might have been other than now, when nations are so prone to offer violence, injury, and wrong. (Hooker.)

(2) Having left the country in which they were born and in which the tiny school of which Herr Heinrich was the master was, the lads, who found no scope for their abilities there, determined to seek their fortunes under the auspices of the British flag, which was favourable, as they thought, to trade and commerce, and sailed to Australia where, after a long voyage in which they encountered many hardships, suffering shipwreck and being taken ill through the food which they had, they arrived.

(3) There he stood pointing me out with his dusky finger to the mob and to a poor woman (I suppose his mother) in particular, till the tears for the exquisiteness of the fun (so he thought it) worked themselves out at the corners of his poor red eyes, red from many a previous weeping, and soot-inflamed, yet twinkling through all with such a joy, snatched out of desolation, that Hogarth—but Hogarth has got him already (how could he miss him?) in the March to Finchley, grinning at the pieman—there he stood, as he stands in the picture, irremovable, as if the jest were to last for ever—with such a maximum of glee and minimum of mischief in his mirth—for the grin of a genuine sweep hath absolutely no malice in it—that I could have been content if the honour of a gentleman might endure it, to have remained his butt and his mockery till midnight.

(Lamb.)

11. Rewrite as continuous passages with fewer sentences, avoiding repetition :—

- (1) He went away. It was supposed that he had gone to London. They thought it was to escape arrest. He arrived there. No one would give him a situation at first. At last he got a situation. It was as a clerk. It was in an office. This office was in the City.
- (2) He walked in. His friend was there. His friend sat in an armchair. A book was on his knee. He was fast asleep. A cup stood by his side. There was tea in the cup. He walked up to his sleeping friend. He took him by the arm. He shook him. His friend woke. He looked amazed.
- (3) The young man made up his mind. He would go to America. In fact, he would emigrate and be a farmer. There seemed to be no permanent work for him at home. He was generally employed for a firm for only three weeks at a time. Then he would be out of work for a corresponding period. So he would try his fortune abroad. Moreover he was strong and understood ploughing. He had a little money. Therefore, he would take a farm. He would take it, he thought, in the west of Canada. He would probably take it in Manitoba. For he had friends in Manitoba. These friends might help him. They might advise him. They might buy the stock for his farm. At any rate he would go to them. He would ask their advice. He would request them to help him.

12. Rewrite, omitting words that seem superfluous and condensing :—

After he had successfully overcome all the various obstacles, which, when he was a young man setting out on life's uneven road, had at many different points in his career opposed his onward progress, he pursued unchecked for many successive years a course of uniform prosperity until at last he reached the ultimate goal towards which from the outset all his steps had been unswervingly directed. (M)

13. Rewrite as a continuous passage, avoiding repetitions and the use of too many sentences :—

There are passages of Homer or Horace, which to a boy are but rhetorical commonplaces. To him they are neither better nor worse than a hundred others which any clever writer may supply. He gets them by heart. He thinks them very fine. He imitates them in his own versification. He thinks he imitates them successfully. At length they come home to him when long years have passed. They come home to him when he has had experience of life. They pierce him with their sad earnestness. They pierce him with their vivid exactness. They pierce him as if he had never before known them. (M)

14. Recast the following short account of life in the country so as to improve the style and arrangement without adding or omitting anything material :—

The people who live in the country are always up early and at work, and those who keep farms have plenty of work to do in feeding the poultry and cows, etc., and in getting a good crop of corn and hops. The people in the country bring in their poultry to town on market days and are busy selling them. You can go for beautiful walks and drives in the

country. Everything is so pleasant and kept so nice. The wild flowers smell so sweet and the fruit is so nice to eat. The country drives are good. Plenty of people always take a drive in the country. The birds sing so sweet in the woods, and the squirrels are nice things to watch playing about. It is very healthy to reside in the country, there is nothing to blow about, no smoke, as there is in a town. The tradesmen have nice drives to take their goods into town, or generally send them by carriers' carts which run nearly every day. The poultry which country people keep is interesting to watch. Country people do a lot of work and are always busy. (M)

15. Rewrite as a continuous passage, avoiding repetitions and the use of too many sentences :—

The Umbrians gazed in wonder on the slingers from the Balearian islands. The slingers were in Hannibal's army. The Umbrians gazed in wonder on the regular African infantry. The African infantry had not yet exchanged their long lances for the stabbing sword of the Roman soldier. They had not yet exchanged their small shields for the long shield of the Roman soldier. They gazed in wonder on the heavy Carthaginian cavalry. The heavy Carthaginian cavalry were mounted on horses superior to those of Italy. Above all they gazed in wonder on the bands of wild Numidians. The Numidians rode without saddle or bridle. They rode as if the rider and his horse were one creature. They scoured over the country with a speed and impetuosity defying escape and defying resistance. (M)

16. Express the following ideas by changing some of the parts of speech into others, and state your reasons for the alteration in each instance :—

(a) The result would be a hopeless confusion of thought by such a statement of the theory of evolution without any modification.

(b) His assertion that the combination of two elements would be the effect of extreme pressure was a manifestation of his ignorance of recent discoveries.

(c) The King's favouring the extreme party, in spite of their declaration against the war, gave great offence to his well-wishers.

(d) Humble origin is no bar to the attainment of greatness, while pride of birth is a frequent cause of humiliation. (M)

17. Compare the style of the following passages with regard to—

(a) The structure of the sentences.

(b) The choice of words.

(i) That which was organised by the moral ability of one has been executed by the physical efforts of many, and DRURY LANE THEATRE is now complete. Of that part behind the curtain, which has not yet been destined to glow beneath the brush of the varnisher, or vibrate to the hammer of the carpenter, little is thought by the public, and little need be said by the committee. Truth, however, is not to be sacrificed for the accommodation of either; and he who should pronounce that our edifice has received its final embellishment would be disseminating falsehood without incurring favour, and risking the disgrace of detection without participating the advantage of success.

(ii) Remember that. Never forget that. Read it to your children, and to your children's children! And now, *most thinking people*, cast

your eyes over my head to what the builder (I beg his pardon, the architect) calls the *proscenium*. No motto, no slang, no popish Latin, to keep the people in the dark. Nothing in the dead languages, properly so called, for they ought to die. The Covent Garden manager tried that, and a pretty business he made of it! When a man uses Latin phrases he is called a man of letters. Very well, and is not a man who cries O.P.¹ a man of letters too? You ran your O.P. against his Latin, and pray which beat? I prophesied that, though I never told anybody.

(iii) Finding on enumeration that they have, with a with-two-hands-and-one-tongue-to-be-applauded liberality, contracted for more gunpowder than they want, they have parted with the surplus to the mattock-carrying and hustings-hammering high-bailiff of Westminster, who has, with his own shovel, dug a large hole in the front of the parish-church of St Paul, Covent Garden, that, upon the least symptom of ill-breeding in the mob at the general election, the whole of the market may be blown into the air. This, ladies and gentlemen, may at first make provisions *rise*, but we pledge the credit of our theatre that they will soon *fall* again, and people be supplied, as usual, with vegetables, in the in-general-strewed-with-cabbage-stalks-but-on-Saturday-night-lighted-up-with-lamps market of Covent Garden. (M)

18. Express in a more simple style, but, as far as possible, in the same words, the substance of the following sentence from Milton's speech to Parliament "For the Liberty of unlicenc'd Printing":—

If therefore ye be loth to dishearten utterly and discontent, not the mercenary crew of false pretenders to learning, but the free and ingenuous sort of such as evidently were born to study and love learning for itself, not for lucre or any other end but the service of God and of truth, and perhaps that lasting fame and perpetuity of praise which God and good men have consented shall be the reward of those whose published labours advance the good of mankind, then know, that so far to distrust the judgment and the honesty of one who hath but a common repute in learning and never yet offended, as not to count him fit to print his mind without a tutor and examiner, lest he should drop a schism or something of corruption, is the greatest displeasure and indignity to a free and knowing spirit that can be put upon him. (M)

¹ O.P. refers to the Old Price Riot, caused by the rise in the price of admission to the New Covent Garden Theatre.

CHAPTER XXIII

REPRODUCTION AND EXPANSION

301. **F**LUENCY OF EXPRESSION—It is our experience that many students, even such as are sufficiently advanced in other respects to prepare for an examination, find a difficulty in writing, not merely an essay, but even a simple piece of composition, say an account of a tale they have read. This chapter is intended to help such students to make a beginning, to put them on the right road, before they attempt an *Essay* in the true sense of the word. An *Essay* proper requires considerable knowledge, thought, judgment, and arrangement, as well as fluency of expression; the exercises in this chapter will be progressive, but all as far as possible of such a simple character as to avoid difficulties due to deficiency of knowledge, thought, judgment, and arrangement, and to concentrate the student's attention mainly on expressing himself freely.

Such students as feel themselves fairly proficient in this elementary work will not need to work all the exercises appended to this chapter, but even they will do well to read the chapter itself.

It may be noted that these exercises will not only help the student in composition, but will indirectly serve as an introduction to Paraphrasing and Précis-writing.

The work may be divided into three stages:—

(1) Reproduction of a short piece of prose such as a fable or tale.

(2) Reproduction of a simple poem.

(3) Expansion of Outlines.

302. **REPRODUCTION OF A PIECE OF PROSE**—The tale, which at first should not exceed a printed page in length, should be *read through* carefully once or more, until the *substance*

is thoroughly known. For the present purpose the *language* need not be thoroughly studied and indeed must not be remembered—unless it be a particularly apposite quotation or remark ; for the whole aim of this kind of work is that the student shall use his **own words**.

Then the book should be shut and the account written. It is advisable that some time should elapse between the reading and the writing so that the **memory** may be trained to retain what is essential. This faculty is not less important for Composition than for other work.

The Reproduction—which may occupy about a page of ordinary writing—should be simple and straightforward. There ought to be no difficulty here as to where to begin or where to end. The tale itself has decided these things as well as the order and arrangement of the facts. Attention should be paid at this stage to Punctuation (especially with regard to full stops) and to Grammar and Spelling. No endeavour should be made to give fine turns to the phrases or to imitate any particular style of writing ; the result of such conscious imitation in a beginner's work is usually bathetic.

Each sentence should be thought out before it is written down ; there should be no loose writing due to the notion that the words will come as we write.

When the reproduction is finished, it should be read through with care (if possible aloud) to see whether the sentences are grammatically constructed and whether they sound well.

303. EXAMPLE of a piece for Reproduction :—

THE HORATII AND THE CURIATII.

A quarrel having arisen between the two cities [Rome and Alba Longa], and their armies having been drawn up in array against each other, the princes determined to avert the battle by a combat of champions chosen from each army. There were in the Roman army three brothers born at the same birth, named Horatii ; and in the Alban army, in like manner, three brothers born at the same birth, and called Curiatii. The two sets of brothers were chosen as champions, and it was agreed that the people to whom the conquerors belonged should rule the other. Two of the Horatii were slain, but the three Curiatii were wounded, and the surviving Horatius, who was unhurt, had recourse to stratagem. He was unable to contend with the Curiatii united, but was more than a match for each of them separately. Taking to flight, he was followed by his three opponents at unequal distances. Suddenly turning round,

he slew, first one, then the second, and finally the third. The Romans were declared the conquerors and the Albans their subjects. But a tragical event followed. As Horatius was entering Rome, bearing his threefold spoils, his sister met him and recognised on his shoulders the cloak of one of the Curiatii, her betrothed lover. She burst into such passionate grief that the anger of her brother was kindled, and stabbing her with his sword he exclaimed, "So perish every Roman woman who bewails a foe." For this murder he was condemned by the two judges of the blood to be hanged on the fatal tree, but he appealed to the people and they gave him his life.

304. REPRODUCTION OF A SIMPLE POEM — This carries us one stage further. The facts in a poem are not generally told in a manner as direct as that of prose; they are wrapped around in language more or less figurative, and need to be carefully dissected out. A poem, in fact, as will be seen in Chapter xxxii., is written with the idea not so much of conveying mere information, as of expressing thoughts beautifully and artistically. For the present purpose, narrative poetry of a simple nature should be selected. The poem should be read once or more as in the case of the prose tale; and it must be particularly emphasised that it is not the language, however beautiful it may be, with which we are now concerned. The diction of poetry is frequently quite unsuitable to prose and therefore must not be reproduced. Before beginning to write the reproduction, it may be well, in this case, to jot down on paper the main facts which are about to be described. These will serve as a beginning of the outlines which are so important in the construction of an essay and of which more will be said later. At present such notes need only be very brief.

305. EXAMPLE—

There was a time when all the body's members
 Rebelled against the belly, thus accused it:
 That only like a gulf it did remain
 I' the midst of the body, idle and unactive,
 Still cupboarding the viand, never bearing
 Like labour with the rest, where the other instruments
 Did see and hear, devise, instruct, walk, feel,
 And mutually participate, did minister
 Unto the appetite and affection common
 Of the whole body. The belly answered:

* * * * *
 "True is it, my incorporate friends," quoth he,
 "That I receive the general food at first,

Which you do live upon ; and fit it is,
 Because I am the storehouse and the shop
 Of the whole body ; but if you do remember,
 I send it through the rivers of your blood,
 Even to the court, the heart, to the seat o' the brain ;
 And, through the cranks and offices of man,
 The strongest nerves and small inferior veins
 From me receive that natural competency
 Whereby they live ; though all at once cannot
 See what I do deliver out to each,
 Yet I can make my audit up, that all
 From me do back receive the flour of all,
 And leave me but the bran."

. REPRODUCTION IN PROSE.

Once upon a time the other members of the body rebelled against the belly. They complained that they had to do all the work of hearing, seeing, speaking, walking, and thinking and received nothing for their labour ; he, on the contrary, ate all the food and grew fat on it, but did nothing.

The belly replied that although they were quite right in their contention that he received all the food, this was only a part of the truth. They must remember that without him they could not live. All the nutrition in the food was carefully dispersed by him to every organ of the body ; the brain, the heart, the nerves all received strength from him through the blood.

Possibly each of them could not exactly estimate the share he received ; yet, affirmed the belly, if he were called to account for his actions he could easily show that he gave them all the best part of the food, retaining for himself only the husks.

306. EXPANSION OF OUTLINES—The excellence of a piece of composition beyond the stage of Reproduction will depend very largely on the method of arrangement of the material, and this arrangement can only be obtained by setting out with some care a scheme or outline on paper before attempting to write the composition. At present, however, our main purpose is to furnish materials ready to hand, arranged in suitable order, each of which is to be expanded into a paragraph or a piece of composition containing several paragraphs. Where the expansion is intended to be of some length the outlines are paragraphed as an indication of the paragraphing of the expansion.

307. EXAMPLE—

ULYSSES AND THE CYCLOPS.

OUTLINE.

1. Ulysses reaches country of Cyclops—disembarks on island. Next morning with twelve companions rows to mainland—explores cave. No person there, but sheep, goats, milk, cheese.

2. They await Cyclops. He returns with wood—milks flocks—closes cave—lights fire—sees strangers—slays two—eats them—sleeps. Has only one eye. Next morning slays and eats two more men—goes out—closes cave.

3. Ulysses plans his downfall. In evening plies him with wine—puts red-hot stake in eye—Cyclops enraged but helpless. Ulysses ties comrades under rams—thus escape from cave—reach ship.

EXPANSION.

In their voyage home from Troy, Ulysses and his comrades arrived one night in the country of the Cyclops, and disembarked on a small island in the bay. They resolved to explore the mainland opposite; and, with that intent, Ulysses, taking twelve of his best men with him, rowed over thither next morning. Close to the shore they perceived a large cave; they entered, and found therein flocks of sheep and goats and abundance of milk and cheese, but no human being.

Unfortunately for themselves the little company determined to await the coming of the Cyclops. The latter—a terrible monster with only one eye—returned at night, as was his wont, driving his flocks and carrying a bundle of faggots. He entered the cave and closed its mouth with an enormous stone. After he had milked the goats and sheep and lighted a fire he perceived the strangers. He sprang upon two of them, tore them to pieces, and devoured them; then he went to sleep. Next morning he arose, and, having slain and eaten two more men, left with his flocks, closing the cave behind him.

The unhappy prisoners spent the day in planning the Cyclops' destruction. On his return, Ulysses, having plied him with strong wine, took a stake of wood which he had pointed and made red-hot, and with the aid of his comrades thrust it into the monster's eye. The giant shrieked with rage, but could do nothing to avenge himself because of his blindness. Ulysses then tied each of his men under the belly of a ram, and it was thus that they left the cave next morning unknown to the Cyclops; they regained their ship and continued their voyage in safety.

NOTE.—Space prevents the insertion of exercises for reproduction; the student will find plenty of material for such work in any reading-book or book of fables or short tales. The following poems are of a nature suitable for reproduction in prose: Browning's "Incident of the French Camp," Leigh Hunt's "Abou ben Adhem," Tennyson's "Lady of Shalott," Longfellow's "Village Blacksmith," Browning's "How they brought the good news from Ghent to Aix."

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXIII.

I. Expand each of the following outlines into a paragraph:—

- (1) *The luck of Polycrates.* Polycrates always fortunate. Amasis his ally—says he is too lucky—some evil will come—should sacrifice his most loved possession. Polycrates loves beautiful emerald ring—throws it in the sea—sorrowful. Fisherman brings great fish—fish opened—the ring inside. Amasis informed—renounces the alliance—says Polycrates must be doomed. Polycrates entrapped by Oroetes—slain.

- (2) *Death of Cæsar.* Cæsar returns victorious from Spain—honoured by Senate—at highest point in his career. Some citizens jealous—some private enemies to Cæsar—plot hatched to murder him. Cassius leads—persuades Brutus to join. He joins for good of Rome—thinks Cæsar too ambitious. Cæsar warned not to attend Senate on Ides of March—disregards warning—goes. Conspirators close round him—offer petition for recall of Publius Cimber from banishment. Cæsar refuses—is stabbed by Cassius—then by rest—finally by Brutus—dies saying, “Thou too, Brutus.”
- (3) *Romulus and Remus.* Rhea Silvia—daughter of Numitor—bears twins—babes doomed by usurper Amulius to be drowned in cradle. Tiber overflows—cradle washed ashore—babes suckled by wolf—found by a shepherd—grow up to young manhood. Made leaders of herdsmen. Quarrel arises with royal herdsmen—Remus captured—Numitor sees him—recognises him—hears story of his childhood. Romulus and Remus slay Amulius—replace Numitor—found Rome. Remus slain for disobeying Romulus.
- (4) *Horatius.* Porsena king of Etruria besieges Rome—seizes Janiculum—only Tiber between him and Rome—thinks to cross by Sublician bridge. Romans determine to cut it down—Etruscans already there—about to cross. Horatius and two other Romans cross and hold that end against the enemy while bridge is cut through. Bridge gives way—Horatius sends other two back just in time—remains himself—wounded—swims Tiber with armour on. Rome saved—Horatius publicly honoured.
- (5) *Orpheus and Eurydice.* Orpheus beautiful player on lute—trees, animals, even stones come to hear him. Has a beautiful wife Eurydice—she dies—is carried to Hades—Orpheus mourns her—goes to Hades—plays lute—keepers of gate admit him. Pluto king of Hades delighted with music—promises to restore Eurydice. She is to follow Orpheus—he must not look back at her. Orpheus departs—after a time looks back—Eurydice lost for ever.
- (6) *The story of Hengest.* Hengest and Horsa invited by Vortigern to help against Picts and Scots. Hengest receives Thanet as a reward—sends for friends and relations. Arrival of Rowena his daughter—Vortigern loves her—renounces Christianity and gives Kent for her. Vortigern deposed by subjects—son Vortimer defeats Hengest—Vortimer poisoned—Hengest rules S.E. of England.
- (7) *Gregory the Great.* Gregory sees English youths in Rome as slaves—asks their nationality—“Angli”—thinks should be “Angeli” (angels). Asks whence they come—“Deira”—says that means “de ira” (from wrath). Determines to undertake mission to England—is prevented by Romans because of danger. Becomes Pope—sends Augustine to Kent—Æthelbert converted—beginnings of Christianity in England.

(8) *Canute*. Courtiers flatter Canute—say nothing can withstand him. Canute orders a chair to be brought—places it on the sand—sits there to await tide—commands tide not to advance—Waves gradually wash over his feet—Canute points moral to courtiers.

(9) *Capture of Quebec*. Wolfe disembarks on I. of Orleans in St Lawrence—Troops conveyed in boats at night—land at small cove—Wolfe repeats Gray's Elegy to officers. Scale precipitous cliffs. At dawn British army on heights of Abraham. Montcalm gives battle—Wolfe orders British to reserve fire—enemy within 40 yards—charge of the Grenadiers—Wolfe wounded in wrist, then in groin, then in breast—falls and is taken to rear. Battle rages fifteen minutes—French defeated—they flee—Montcalm wounded. Wolfe dies—capitulation of Quebec—first step in conquest of Canada.

(10) *Caedmon*. Servant to Hilda at Whitby monastery—ignorant of music and poetry—leaves table when singing begins. One night leaves table and tends to the cattle—sees a vision—is told to sing—says he cannot—is told he must—asks what to sing—is commanded to sing the beginning of all created things. Reports vision to Hilda—sings story of Genesis—then of all Old Testament.

3. Expand each of the following outlines into a piece of composition:—

I. RICHARD II. AND BOLINGBROKE.

(1) Norfolk and Bolingbroke quarrel—each accuses other of treason. Richard orders duel at Coventry—nobles assemble to witness it—Richard stops it—banishes Mowbray for life—Bolingbroke for ten years. John of Gaunt pleads for his son Bolingbroke—sentence reduced to six years.

(2) Bolingbroke bids farewell—goes to France. Richard rules harshly—England discontented. John of Gaunt dies—Richard seizes lands and treasure—uses money to go to war in Ireland—York left as Regent.

(3) Bolingbroke plots with nobles—returns—claims his property—joined by nobility especially powerful Northumberland—at length York joins him. Richard II. returns—is deserted by his friends—captured by Bolingbroke—resigns crown. Bolingbroke becomes Henry IV.—Richard murdered at Pontefract.

II. ALFRED THE GREAT.

(1) Danes invade England under elder brothers of Alfred—Alfred gains experience in war—wins Ashdown (871)—ascends throne shortly after—indecisive battle at Wilton—Danes leave Wessex for time—conquer Mercia. Alfred wins naval battle at Swanage (875).

(2) Fresh invasion of Wessex by Guthrum—Alfred disbands army and flees to Athelney—story of the cakes—story of his entry into Danish camp disguised as a harper—prepares for fresh struggle—makes several successful sorties.

(3) Great battle at Ethandune (878). Danes defeated. Treaty of Wedmore—Guthrum to become a Christian and to

receive East Anglia and part of Mercia. Peace for some years.

- (4) Alfred increases fleet—trains men for navy—coasts kept inviolate—Hastings lands (893)—is defeated—some of his followers settle.
- (5) Alfred improves condition of people—invites scholars from abroad—establishes schools—translates various works into English—encourages manufactures and commerce—collects and revises laws. Death about 900.

III. THE YOUNG PRETENDER.

- (1) Charles Edward leaves Rome (1744)—arrives Dunkirk—sails with eighteen ships for England—storm destroys them—expedition abandoned. Next year sets out with two ships—one disabled by English fleet—lands at Moidart with seven followers.
- (2) Charles's forces swell to 1600—avoids Sir John Cope—enters Perth—enters Edinburgh—cannot take castle—takes up residence in Holyrood Palace—James VIII. proclaimed King, and Charles regent. At Prestonpans defeats Cope—latter flees to Berwick.
- (3) Charles determines to invade London—increases forces—marches into England—no support from that country—reaches Derby—Highlanders refuse to go farther.
- (4) Charles retreats—besieges Stirling—defeats Hawley at Falkirk (1746)—Cumberland arrives—Charles retreats towards Inverness—Cumberland pursues—Battle of Culloden—Charles utterly defeated—wanders about country for five months. Flora Macdonald saves him. Goes on board a French vessel—lands in France—retires to Rome where dies.

IV. JAMES II.

- (1) High Admiral under Charles II.—resigns owing to Test Act (1673). Bill to exclude him from succession fails in Lords (1680).
- (2) Succeeds 1685—promises to uphold church and state—soon arouses suspicions.
- (3) Monmouth rebels—lands at Lyme Regis (1685)—proclaimed king at Taunton—5000 join him—defeated by Feversham at Sedgemoor—forces dispersed—he himself captured and executed.
- (4) James evades Test Act by "Dispensing Power"—gives posts to Roman Catholics—interferes with the Universities—publishes Declaration of Indulgence—orders it to be read in churches. Seven Bishops refuse—petition king—arrested and tried for libel—acquitted.
- (5) Several leading men appeal to William of Orange—latter lands at Torbay—many desert James—Latter flees—is recaptured—again flees—reaches France.
- (6) Attempts conquest of Ireland—aided by Louis XIV.—defeated by William III. at Boyne—retires to France—resides at S. Germain's till his death (1701).

V. ACQUISITION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

- (1) Dutch earliest settlers. Capetown taken (1795) owing to

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Napoleonic Wars—restored 1802—retaken 1806. Cape Colony sold to English 1814—colonised from 1820.

- (2) Dutch (Boers) "trek" north owing to grievances—across Orange 1836—and into Natal—finally across Vaal. Natal annexed 1843—Orange Free State in 1848 but restored 1854—Transvaal recognised as Republic 1852.
- (3) Zulu Wars—Transvaal annexed 1877—fresh Zulu Wars 1879. First Boer War 1880. Transvaal restored 1881. Second Boer War 1899-1902. Transvaal and Orange Free State annexed.
- (4) Gradual extension north—Bechuanaland occupied 1885—S. African Company founded 1889. Rhodesia occupied.

VI. LOSS OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES.

- (1) Grenville passes the Stamp Act (1765). Colonists resist—refuse to use the paper—Act repealed (1766). Fresh tax on tea, glass, paper, etc. Agitation in colonies—soldiers fire on mob in Boston (1770)—tea destroyed (1773). British transfer custom-house from Boston to Salem.
- (2) States hold congress at Philadelphia (1775)—decide on war—Washington appointed commander-in-chief. Lexington and Bunker's Hill (1775)—British victorious but lose heavily.
- (3) Declaration of Independence (1776). Brooklyn, Brandywine Creek, Germantown. British victorious on the whole.
- (4) Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga (1777). French assist Colonists (1778). Colonists henceforth victorious. Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown (1781).
- (5) Treaty of Versailles (1783). Independence of Colonies recognised.

3. Arrange the following notes in logical order, and write a piece of composition, using them as a basis :—

Shakspeare, William. Born 1564. Died 1616. Greatest dramatist. Wrote Comedies, Tragedies, Histories. Manager of Theatre and part proprietor about 1595. Actor and writer from 1585. Wrote thirty-five plays. Made money. Probably not advanced education. Retired to country about 1612. Little known of his life. Birthplace Stratford-on-Avon. Died there also. Marlowe his forerunner. Obtained plots of comedies from Italian tales. "Henry VIII." probably his last play, "Love's Labour's Lost" his first. Historical plays from Holinshed's Chronicle and Plutarch's Lives. Had two daughters and one son. Married Anne Hathaway.

4. Arrange and paragraph the following notes, and write a piece of composition, using them as a basis :—

The Crimean War. Heroic actions by English at Balaclava (1854)—charge of "Heavy Brigade" and "Light Brigade." France, England, and Turkey against Russia. Russia destroys Turkish Fleet at Sinope 1853. Real cause of war growth of Russia and attempt to find an outlet for Black Sea Fleet. Sardinia joins allies 1855. Victory of Lord Raglan at Alma 1854. Mismanagement of war—soldiers badly clothed and fed. Siege of Sebastopol 1854-5. Victory of Allies at Inkerman 1854 (Nov.). Immediate cause of war a quarrel between Greek and Roman monks in the Holy Land. Peace of Paris 1856. Fall of Sebastopol 1855 (Sept.). Turkey promises better treatment to Christians. Black Sea fleet to be abolished. Danube opened to commerce.

CHAPTER XXIV

PREPARATIONS FOR COMPOSITION

308. **B**EFORE dealing with the actual production of a piece of composition or of an essay we shall, in this chapter, indicate the methods by which a student may equip himself with the necessary material. We shall also summarise the rules to be observed in composition. Most of these have already been exemplified in previous chapters; where such is the case, reference to chapter or paragraph will be given.

309. **THE SUBJECT MATTER** — Before writing it is obviously necessary to know something about one's subject. A good general education should go a long way towards supplying the requisite knowledge; yet students frequently declare themselves to be unable to write an essay because they know little or nothing about the subject in hand. This seems to be due mainly to three causes:—

(1) Inexperience in setting out and arranging knowledge which they actually possess.

(2) Unwillingness to think and ponder over a subject which at first sight may not be interesting.

(3) Actual lack of knowledge.

The first of these defects may be remedied by constant practice on the right lines; it will be our aim in the next few chapters to show how matter should be arranged and plans sketched out before the essay is begun.

The second can be overcome by perseverance and industry. Remember that nothing which is worth doing is done easily.

The third must be remedied by *reading*. Where so many subjects have to be studied, students are inclined to think that outside reading is impossible as well as unnecessary and tedious.

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It is, however, absolutely necessary, as a mere glance at the titles of the essays set in recent years for public examinations such as London Matriculation will show.

And, moreover, reading of this nature need not be uninteresting ; in fact, it may and should be a relaxation from the somewhat monotonous routine of ordinary study. Habits, good and bad, easily grow ; and, once seriously attempted, reading will be found to be the reverse of tedious.

310. WHAT TO READ—The question is often asked by earnest students: What shall I read? An immediate answer is not easy, owing to the number of books, ancient and modern, on subjects almost equally numerous ; and it is a somewhat thankless task to name some and omit others equally good. As the matter is vital, however, an attempt will be here made to offer some guidance in this respect. First of all, it may be well to ask: What are the purposes of reading as an aid to composition? They are chiefly the acquisition of three things:—

(1) Knowledge of our **Subject**.

(2) A good serviceable **Vocabulary**.

(3) A power of expression such as is found in the best authors
—in other words, a command of **Style**.

It will be evident, first, that in order to acquire the requisite *knowledge* some, at least, of our reading matter must consist of works which are instructive in such subjects as we are likely to be asked to discuss ; secondly, in order to secure a good vocabulary, and a faculty of expressing ourselves in the best manner, the best and most careful authors must be read.

Essays set for examinations deal for the most part with History, Geography, Literature, Abstract and General Subjects. With these principles as a basis, we shall now endeavour to make our selection of reading as *interesting* as possible. The following list is not intended to be in any way dogmatic, but is designed rather as an indication of the lines to be followed especially with a view to the requirements of such examinations as the London Matriculation and the Senior Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations.

311. PROSE WORKS—

I. For History and Geography.

- (1) For the main facts, a good elementary History of England, and a good text-book of Geography.
- (2) *If possible*, John Richard Green's "History of the English People," which gives an insight into the development of the nation, politically and socially, should be read.
- (3) Biographies of great Englishmen, such as Macaulay's Essays on Clive and Warren Hastings.
- (4) Travels in foreign countries, such as Captain Cook's Voyages, Prescott's Mexico, and modern explorations such as those of Livingstone, Stanley, and Nansen.

II. For General Subjects.

- (1) A short history of English Literature should be read by all.
- (2) Novels: those of R. L. Stevenson (for interest and beauty of style), Dickens and Thackeray (for wonderful insight into character and humour), Scott (one or two of the Waverley Novels, especially those dealing with English History, *e.g.* "Talisman," "Ivanhoe," "Waverley"), Bulwer Lytton, Kingsley, Stanley Weyman, Anthony Hope, and many others.
- (3) The leading articles of a *good* daily newspaper.
- (4) The better magazines—which give a large amount of miscellaneous information about current topics in a small space, and which are themselves mainly composed of *Essays*.
- (5) Some Essays: Bacon's, Macaulay's, and the papers in the *Spectator* are especially suitable.
- (6) An encyclopædia of some sort should be at hand *for purposes of reference*.

312. POETRY—

Some students are apt to fight shy of anything in the form of poetry, but such reading is indispensable for several reasons. It

should add an elegance and grace to our style, and should help us to a more perfect understanding of the words and phrases of our language. Therefore we find that many of the questions set at examinations deal, and rightly deal, with poetry. Even from this more mundane point of view, then, some acquaintance with poetry is necessary.

The following may be recommended:—

- (1) Shakspeare: one or two plays. The English Historical plays will be especially appropriate, *e.g.* "Richard II.," "Henry V." "Julius Cæsar" is also an excellent play to read for this purpose.
- (2) A collection of Historical Poems or Extracts—such as that of Nicklin.
- (3) Scott: one poem, *e.g.* "Marmion."
- (4) Milton: part of "Paradise Lost."
- (5) A few of the shorter masterpieces of English literature, *e.g.* Gray's "Elegy" and "The Bard," Macaulay's "Armada," Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner," Tennyson's "Idylls of the King" (part), etc.

313. It is impossible to mention all, or even a great part of what may well be read, either in prose or in poetry: we have only been able here to indicate the line to be taken. As far as possible works have been chosen that seem to be at once interesting and educative. The student who has a taste for English Literature—and it is surprising how this taste will grow by reading—will soon discover what further to read. But even those who have no taste for literature should read at least some of the above, or works of a similar nature. Apart from mere examination purposes, no one can consider himself truly educated who has not at least dipped into the vast treasure-house of the finest literature that the world has ever seen.

314. SPELLING—It is somewhat surprising that many essays fail through carelessness or ignorance in this important, though elementary subject. English spelling is no doubt difficult owing to its inconsistency (§ 16); but the ability to spell correctly *must* be attained in some way or other. It may be helpful to point out that

English spelling depends at least as much on the careful observation of the *eye* as on the ear ; hence, in reading, the student should endeavour to picture in his mind any new word, and if necessary, he should write it down so as to fix the impression. Do not hesitate to consult a dictionary if any doubt arises in writing a word ; a word mis-spelt and left incorrect is worse than entire ignorance of the word.

315. HANDWRITING—Good handwriting is mainly a matter of industry and perseverance. Some people seem to write well naturally ; but the very worst writers can improve wonderfully by practice. What is wanted is not beautiful or artistic writing, but *plain, legible* writing—such as can be instantly read, and about the meaning of which there can be no doubt. Illegible writing is a disgrace to any otherwise well-educated person. With regard to examinations, supposing that the student knows his subject well, and expresses himself well, his work will be of little value if the examiner cannot read what has been written ! An examiner will, quite properly, subtract marks from a student's answer when he has to puzzle over the handwriting.

316. RULES FOR COMPOSITION—The following rules—recapitulated from previous chapters and extended—should be carefully studied and committed to memory :—

(1) Be careful of *Grammar* and *Correct Order* of words (Chaps. xv., xvi.). Practise the correction of faulty sentences.

(2) Avoid *Vulgarisms*, *Provincialisms*, *Foreign words*, and *Coined words*—anything, in short, that is not standard English (Chaps. xviii., xix.).

(3) Avoid *puns*, *attempted smartness*, or any form of *flippancy*. Remember that the Examiner does not want to be amused.

(4) Avoid *Abbreviations* in an Essay, unless it be a few well-recognised ones such as : Mr, *e.g.*, *i.e.*, etc.

Numbers should be written in words ; except dates and large numbers.

(5) Beware of obtruding your own *personal opinions* ; avoid the use of “ I ” and “ me ” as much as possible.

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(6) Avoid the introduction of *politics* or *religion*, except in so far as it may be necessary to the subject in hand.

When introduced such matters should be treated impartially, and apart from any personal views.

(7) Avoid any attempt at being *sentimental* or appealing to the emotions of the reader. Attempted pathos often degenerates into bathos.

(8) Express your meaning as *clearly* and *tersely* as possible. Avoid ambiguity due to wrong order (§ 212), to illegitimate ellipsis (§ 225), or to multiplicity of negatives (§ 263). Be as concise as possible; but take care not to be *too* brief (§ 262).

(9) Always try to find the *best word* to express your meaning. Study synonyms carefully (§ 265), and use the appropriate one in every case. Where two or more seem equally suitable, use them to vary the language, and thus to avoid monotonous repetition. Avoid the frequent use of hackneyed words such as nice, good, bad, fine; and be sparing of Adjectives—too many weaken instead of strengthen the effect.

(10) Study the subject of *Punctuation* (Chap. xvii.). It is the handmaid of clearness of diction.

(11) *Keep to the subject set.* Be sure throughout that you are writing on what is asked, and not on some kindred subject more or less closely connected with the question. This may seem a superfluous piece of advice, yet how many essays fail through this defect!

(12) Observe *proportion* and *logical order* in all you write. Take a comprehensive view of the subject; do not write too much about the part of the subject which pleases you most, or with which you are best acquainted. Learn what part of your knowledge to *leave out*.

(13) Vary the *length* and *form* of your sentences. Paragraph your Essay (§ 286, etc.).

(14) Remember that your work should be pleasing both to *eye* and to *ear*. It is well for practice to read your composition aloud to yourself, in order to see how it sounds. Cultivate *Euphony* and thus avoid such jingling as: "That *hour* our troops arrived."

(15) Above all things be *natural* and *simple*. Avoid affectation

of word or style (§ 263), and discard conscious ornamentation. A great writer, who is master of the language, may endeavour to make his writings as ornate as he can, but *you* must not.

Sincerity counts for a good deal, even in an Essay. Say what you mean, and mean what you say.

(16) *Read*, to improve your vocabulary, style and knowledge.

(17) *Think*, before you write. Make up your mind what you are going to say before you write a sentence. Arrange your ideas on paper before beginning your Essay (see next Chapters).

(18) *Revise* your work. Add anything that is of importance, eliminate anything superfluous or irrelevant, and look to the punctuation.

(19) *Practise* constantly. Industry and perseverance are, after all, the high-roads to successful composition.

CHAPTER XXV

COMPOSITION

317. **O**RIGINAL COMPOSITION—We now enter the domain of original composition. To freedom and fluency of expression which has hitherto been our main purpose must now be added experience in the selection and arrangement of material. In this chapter the subjects considered will be of a fairly elementary nature, such as :—

- (1) A tale or novel.
- (2) An event in history.
- (3) A biography or a reign in history.
- (4) The geography of a country or region.
- (5) Description of a common object or process.
- (6) „ „ an event witnessed.

318. **READING**—For the first four of these it is necessary to read up the subject, unless already known. Notes may be made as to dates and numbers if these cannot be remembered ; but the student is warned not to make more notes than necessary while reading. The memory must be trained ; for no notes will be available at the examination !

It is not advisable for the beginner to read too many authorities on the given subject ; the unavoidable conflict of details in the various accounts will only serve to bewilder him. The necessary information should be obtained from one standard author ; although the elucidation of any particular point may certainly be looked up elsewhere.

319. **THE OUTLINE**—The next step is the formation of the outline. This requires careful consideration, for on it largely depends the success of the subsequent composition.

Facts may, in the first place, be jotted down with dates as they occur to the mind. They then need arrangement and grouping under headings; these headings will, in the main, indicate the paragraphs into which the composition will naturally fall.

The actual form of the Outline (and consequently that of the composition based upon it) will vary according to the nature of the subject; we shall presently consider forms of Outlines appropriate to the classes of subjects mentioned in § 317.

320. THE COMPOSITION—The principles embodied in Chapters xxii., xxiii., and xxiv. should be remembered and applied to the composition. The body of the composition on simple subjects will be mainly descriptive or narrative in character. Important features are: (1) The beginning; (2) the end; (3) the method of transition.

It has already been seen that the **beginning** and the **end** of a sentence and of a paragraph are important, because they are positions of **emphasis** (§ 220). This is equally true of the beginning and end of a piece of composition.

The beginning should, as a rule, be of an introductory nature. It may supply the reader with the names of the characters, the scene of the plot, the circumstances prior to the event described—in fact, with any information necessary for the complete understanding of the main theme.

The end should, if possible, be striking; a tame finish puts a kind of damper on the whole work. The conclusion of a piece of composition is a difficult task, and requires practice and thought. If possible, it should in some manner or other gather together the threads of the argument. A general remark or an apposite quotation often forms the best possible ending; but the student should beware of any attempt at feeble sentiment or moralising, or of any remark which is not very much to the point—of anything, in short, which is obviously an artificial attempt to make a satisfactory conclusion. “The highest art is to conceal art.”

Transition is an important factor in the success of a piece of composition. The student must not jump from point to point

without establishing the necessary connections; otherwise the logical development, which all written work should show, will probably not be obvious; and at best the composition will give an impression of jerkiness.

The conclusion of one paragraph should prepare the mind of the reader for the next. Very frequently a sentence will be needed, not to give any information at all, but to show the connection with the next statement. Useful words and phrases for connecting paragraphs and sentences in this manner are: however, nevertheless, in this way, such was . . ., consequently. But these words must not be idly used, and, above all, they must not be over-used.

321. We shall now consider the formation of Outlines on the subjects mentioned in § 317, which very fairly represent the chief types of elementary composition. It should be observed that the outlines given below are, in some instances, more lengthy than those which the student will need to prepare for himself, since he will be able to carry in his mind the details of what he intends to write. At first, however, we advise him to map out his work somewhat fully, as in these outlines; after some experience he will be able to shorten this preliminary work considerably.

322. A TALE OR NOVEL—Composition on a long tale or novel, such as "Robinson Crusoe" or "David Copperfield," takes us a stage further than the exercises in reproduction given in the last chapter. We have to describe several hundred pages in as many words. Hence condensation is essential; details must be rigidly excluded; whole chapters dealing with the adventures of secondary characters will need no more than a passing reference. The outline drawn up should consist of the main events—the plot—of the book. It will, of course, vary considerably according to the type of book described; the headings of the most important chapters will serve as a basis. A factor in the success of the composition will be sympathy with the subject-matter and style of the book; an attempt should be made to enter into the spirit in which it is written—humorous or serious

grave or gay, instructive or amusing. Sympathetic treatment will lend vividness and attractiveness to the composition.

323. AN HISTORICAL EVENT—As an example of this nature we will consider the description of a battle. The scheme for an outline should include the following :—

1. Introduction : date of the battle, circumstances at the time, causes for the battle.

2. Preliminaries of the battle : nature of the country, position of the armies, their numbers, their leaders. A rough sketch map is of great service.

3. The fight : its beginning, the turning-point (if any), the victory.

4. Conclusion : immediate results, losses on both sides, advantage gained by victors. Permanent results, if any.

As an example, we give an outline of the battle of Hastings.

BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

1. Introduction : At death of Edward the Confessor (1066) Harold becomes King—William claims crown ; reasons : prepares invasion of England. Harold fighting Hadrada and Tostig—hurries south. William lands near Hastings.

2. Preliminaries : Harold seizes hill of Senlac—surrounds with stockade. William orders advance to attack stockade.

3. The fight : doubtful for some time—Normans pretend retreat—English pursue—become scattered—Normans turn round—N. cavalry attack at same time—English lose heavily—same stratagem a second time—Norman archers shoot from behind—English give way at last.

4. Conclusion : Harold slain—Normans pursue their advantage—first step in the Conquest—effects on England.

For other events than battles, the above scheme will naturally need some modification of detail, though its construction will be on similar lines. As further examples we give :—

MAGNA CARTA.

1. Introduction : John rules tyrannically—quarrels with Church and Barons—both under Stephen Langton demand reform—Charter drawn up.

2. The signing : Runnymede—John forced to sign—the scene.

3. Chief Terms : (1) No taxes without consent of Great Council.
(2) No freeman imprisoned without trial by his equals.
(3) Rights of Church safeguarded.

4. Results : (a) Immediate : John enraged—burns and devastates—loses property in Wash—invasion of Louis—death of John.

(b) Lasting : liberty of citizen—afterwards confirmed and extended.

THE TREATY OF UTRECHT.

Introduction: War of Spanish Succession since 1702 against France—Marlborough's great victories—war lags from 1710 to 1713.

Preliminaries: meeting at Utrecht 1713. Earl of Strafford and Bishop of Bristol for England.

Terms: (1) Louis XIV. to abandon the Pretender and acknowledge Anne and Protestant succession.

(2) England to have Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, Gibraltar and Minorca.

(3) Allies to have certain advantages.

Results: gave England much needed peace—beginnings of Colonial Empire in America—Gibraltar: importance.

324. A BIOGRAPHY—Composition of this nature is rather more difficult. First of all, the material has sometimes to be picked out piece by piece from a mass of irrelevant matter; thus for a biography of Wellington we should have to select our material from a history of the reigns of George III., George IV., William IV., and Victoria, unless we happened to have a "Life of Wellington" to consult. Then, as our composition is to be comparatively short, the material discovered must be condensed: details must be omitted and due prominence given to the important points of the hero's career. Lastly, reflective remarks are generally necessary: thus, an estimate of the hero's character and influence is required. In this class of composition an introduction is generally unnecessary. The scheme for an outline should include the following:—

(1) Early life: birthplace and date—parentage—surroundings. Education—youthful deeds or aspirations.

(2) Career: development—rise in position or in fame. Work or writings by which best known.

(3) Last years: death.

(4) Conclusion: character and influence—effects of work on the future.

As examples we give the following:—

NELSON.

1. Early life: Born 1758 at Burnham Thorpe. Father a clergyman. As a boy weak in body but daring in mind. Midshipman—goes to Polar regions: to India. Glow of patriotism.

2. Career : (a) Besieges Bastia : and Calvi—loses an eye. Com-modore. Bravery and skill at St Vincent—knighted and made Admiral. Teneriffe—loses an arm. Marriage—meets Lady Hamilton.
- (b) The Nile 1798—follows Buonaparte—attacks French at Alexandria—brilliant victory—Nelson wounded—made Baron.
- (c) The Baltic 1801—refuses to see signal—terrible battle—great victory—Viscount Nelson.
3. Death : (d) Trafalgar—causes—vigilance for years—the battle—the signal—death of Nelson (Oct. 21st, 1805).
4. Conclusion : his character—effect of his work in saving England—his motto " England expects that every man will do his duty."

CHAUCER.

1. Early life : Born probably 1340 in London—Page to Lionel duke of Clarence—soldier—taken prisoner in France—released 1360.
2. Career : (a) Early works : " Complaynte to Pity 1368," " Death of Blanche the Duchesse 1369."
- (b) Goes to Italy on diplomatic affairs—influence of Dante and Boccaccio—writes " Troylus and Creseide."
- (c) The Canterbury Tales—his chief work—a gradual compilation—power of narration—description of contemporary life.
- (d) Other works : " Parlement of Foules," " Hous of Fame," " Legend of Good Women," etc.
3. Later years : Customs officer—patronised by John of Gaunt—member of Parliament 1386—becomes poor—writes " Complaynte to his Purse"—receives pension for rest of life. Death in 1400—buried in Westminster Abbey.
4. Conclusion : " Father of English Poetry"—welds English and French elements of language—first great poetry in English—influence on later poetry.

325. A REIGN IN HISTORY—Though akin to a biography, this subject requires a somewhat different method of treatment. It is not only the life of the sovereign, but also that of the nation during his reign that is required. A list of the chief events of the reign (with dates) should first be made, and from these an outline developed. As proportion is an important feature in a subject of this kind, the events should be divided into three or four groups, and the amount of space to be allotted to each group roughly estimated. Each group will probably require a paragraph (or in some cases two paragraphs). It is not necessary—nor indeed advisable—to mention each event of the reign in exact chronological order : the groups will probably overlap, but as far as possible they should be treated in order of sequence.

Example :—**EDWARD I.**

The events of this reign may be grouped under three headings :—

(1) Conquest of Wales, (2) War with Scotland, (3) Home policy and reform. The outline should be somewhat as follows :—

1. Introduction : dates of reign 1272-1307.

1274. Edward returns home from Crusades.

2. Wales :—

1277. Llewellyn defeated—surrenders—does homage.

1282. Llewellyn and David rebel—former slain, latter executed.

1284. Edward's son born and created Prince of Wales.

1286. Conquest completed.

3. Scotland :—

1291. Scottish claimants—Edward favours Balliol.

1296. Balliol revolts—Edward captures Berwick—Surrey defeats Scots at Dunbar.

1297. Wallace rebels—defeats English at Cambuskenneth.

1298. Edward defeats Wallace at Falkirk.

1304-5. Stirling taken—Wallace executed.

1306. Younger Bruce rebels—defeats English—Edward marches north—dies near Carlisle—his son promises to complete the conquest.

4. Home affairs :—

1278. Power of Barons checked—titles inquired into.

1279. Power of Church limited—Mortmain.

1295. First representative Parliament—constitution.

1297. Confirmation of Charters—Great and Forests.

5. Conclusion : Edward's character—strong, brave, firm ; ruled well. Reign prosperous—advance in liberty—revision of laws by Edward. Called "English Justinian."

326. GEOGRAPHY OF A COUNTRY OR DISTRICT—

In this exercise the multitude of facts at our disposal is somewhat bewildering ; a complete description of a country would often need a dozen pages or more. Some skill is therefore necessary in the selection of material. Further, there is a difficulty in arranging the material so that the subsequent composition may be a coherent, readable account, and not merely a string of facts.

The outline may vary considerably for different cases, but the following may be adopted as a general outline for a country :—

(1) The country : situation—boundaries—size.

(2) Natural features : chief rivers—mountains—bays—capcs—lakes. Special natural advantages—climate.

(3) Political : population—chief towns—industries—trade.

(4) Communications : natural, *e.g.* waterways—artificial, *e.g.* railways.

(5) Government—history—possessions or colonies—national defences.

(6) Conclusion : position among the nations—prospects.

Example :—

SWITZERLAND.

1. Switzerland : centre of Europe—surrounded by Germany (N), Austria (E), Italy (S), France (W)—twice size of Wales.
2. Natural features : very mountainous, Jura (W), Alps (Central, East, and South). Glaciers.
Rivers : Rhine (with Aar), Rhone, Po, Inn.
Lakes : Constance, Geneva, Zurich, and many others.
Climate : healthy—severe winter.
3. Political : population $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions—most in west.
Towns : Berne (capital), Geneva, Zurich, Basle, Neuchatel, Lucerne.
Industries : agriculture, cattle, cheese ; watches, carving, silk and cotton.
4. Communications : roads and railways over chief passes (Simplon and S. Gotthard tunnels) ; rivers mostly unnavigable.
5. Government : republic—two Houses—president—cantons. Army—conscription. History uneventful.
6. Conclusion : Peaceful—poor—industrious. Scenery noted.

As an example of a different nature we take :—

THE RIVER THAMES (Sketch Map).

1. Introduction : length 215 miles—rises Cotswold Hills—flows East across the South of England to North Sea.
2. Course and Tributaries : receives Cherwell at Oxford, then Thame on left bank. Through chalk hills and receives Kennet at Reading on right ; then Colne on left, and Wey and Mole on right. Broadens out at London into an estuary, receiving Lea and Roding on left ; then Medway right. Tidal up to Teddington—80 miles up.
3. Towns : Oxford — university — bishopric ; Reading — biscuits ; Eton—college ; Windsor—royal residence ; Brentford ; London —largest city, greatest port in world— $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions— $\frac{1}{3}$ of exports—over $\frac{1}{3}$ of imports—docks ; Woolwich—arsenal ; Gravesend and Tilbury—end of port of London ; Chatham, Sheerness—military and naval stations—fortified ; Rochester—bishopric.
4. Conclusion : important waterway for south—rich agricultural land—scenery pretty.

327. DESCRIPTION OF COMMON OBJECTS OR PROCESSES—This may include the description of a common object such as an apple, a butterfly, a dog, or of an object or science lesson. Such work is serviceable not only as practice in composition, but intrinsically. How many science students do we find who, while they know their subject well, are utterly unable to express their knowledge with the clearness which a scientific answer demands !

Besides power of expression, another quality will be here required—power of *observation*. If two students are set to describe an object placed before them, or an experiment they have witnessed, it is surprising how different their work will be. One will give such an account that any one reading it can picture to himself just what the object was like or exactly how the experiment proceeded; the other will give so little information, even though he uses as many words as the first, that the reader will fail to distinguish the object described, or to understand the nature of the experiment performed.

This difference will be due largely to *power of observation*. To observe a thing is not merely to look at it; good observation requires careful examination and an intelligent comprehension of the parts which go to make up the whole, and of their intimate connection and interdependence.

A general scheme for the description of an object will include:—

1. Definition, where possible.
2. Occurrence.
3. Modes of preparation, if any.
4. Properties or characteristics.
5. Uses.

This will of course need modification for the special type of object dealt with, e.g. No. 3 will be omitted entirely in the case of a living object.

For the description of an experiment the different stages of the process and their results should be noted, and the final result which the experiment was intended to prove or illustrate should form the conclusion.

Examples:—

HYDROGEN.

1. Occurrence: free in the sun, combined in water, acids, etc.
2. Preparation: (1) Zinc and dilute acid (sketch).
(2) Sodium and water.
(3) Other methods (very briefly).

Equations wherever possible.

3. Properties: very light colourless gas—insoluble in water—burns to form water—does not support combustion, etc.
4. Uses: balloons, oxy-hydrogen flame, etc.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY OF LEAD.

1. Placed piece of Lead on pan of accurate balance : counterpoised with weights.
2. Suspended same from one arm of balance by thread ; allowing lead to hang so that it is completely under water contained in beaker. Counterpoised with weights.

Wt. in air = x grams.

Wt. in water = y grams.

Difference = $x - y$ grams.

= wt. of water displaced by lead.

= wt. of an equal vol. of water.

3. Specific Gravity of Lead = $\frac{\text{wt. of lead}}{\text{wt. of equal vol. of water}} = \frac{x}{x - y}$.

THE HORSE.

1. Mammal, Quadruped, One-toed (hoof). Allied to Ass, Zebra, Quagga—differs from them in long mane and long-haired tail.
2. Colour : very varied (examples). Rarely striped as zebra. Height : up to six feet when domesticated.
3. Occurrence : (a) domesticated everywhere—tamed at very early period ; (b) wild : originally in steppes of Europe and Asia : orig. absent from America and Australia.
4. Habits : herbivorous in wild state : live in droves in open country. Reaches thirty years : not used after sixteen.
5. Breeds : agricultural, carriage, cob, etc.
6. Use : traction—riding—war—racing. After death : flesh, mane and tail, hide, bones, hoofs.
7. Conclusion : substitution of mechanical inventions—cycle, motor, train, etc.

328. AN EVENT WITNESSED—Here, as in the subjects of the last paragraph, careful observation is needed. There may be many things which happened during the time of the event, more or less closely connected with it. A careful selection of these must be made, and then they may be incidentally mentioned but not fully described. The description should be as vivid as possible. There will be scope in subjects of this nature for personal reflection and individuality. No two persons would probably describe an event like a shipwreck in the same manner, even though both were equally observant, for different aspects of the situation would appeal to different people.

Example :—

THE BOAT RACE.

1. Preliminaries : The previous practices—Cambridge favourites. Date—time fixed for start—your position, *e.g.* at Mortlake. The crowds on banks ; amusements—clown on stilts—cheap-jacks—conjurers—cocoa-nut shies—Aunt Sally. The boats on the river—barges—steamers—advertisement launches.

2. The Race : Thames Conservancy launch clears river.
 The start—gun heard.
 The first sight—cheering of spectators.
 The boats nearer—Cambridge leads.
 The Press boats and steamers following.
3. Conclusion : victory of Cambridge by two lengths—light blue flag goes up on Barnes Bridge—enthusiasm of crowd.
 Record of victories of Oxford and Cambridge.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXV.

1. Write a piece of composition from each of the outlines given in this chapter.
2. Use each of the following outlines as a basis for a piece of composition, from 300 to 600 words in length :—

I. THOMAS A BECKET.

- (1) Born 1119 at London—parents Norman. Educated at Oxford and Paris—placed in household of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury—by his help sent to Bologna to study law—returns—made Archdeacon of Canterbury and Provost of Beverley.
- (2) Recommended to Henry II.—appointed Chancellor 1157—given several baronies—becomes very rich—his pomp and retinue. Made tutor to king's eldest son—supports king in everything.
- (3) On death of Theobald becomes Archbishop of Canterbury (1162). Conduct towards king changes—stands up for Church against king and barons—defeats an unjust tax.
 Henry and barons pass Constitutions of Clarendon (1164)—bishops and abbots to do homage and clergy to be tried in civil courts. Becket demurs—is summoned to attend—goods confiscated by the king—flees to France—supported by Louis VII. and the Pope.
- (4) Becket returns (1170)—received with joy by people—excommunicates and banishes various clergy. Henry furious—lets fall hasty words. Four knights swear secretly to avenge Henry.
- (5) The knights proceed to Canterbury—confront Becket, who forbids monks to defend him—attempt to drag him out of the church. Murder of Becket (1170).
- (6) Character : capable statesman and prelate—intrepid and noble spirit—sincere—defends Church against royal aggression—beloved by the people.

II. THE BILL OF RIGHTS.

- (1) William of Orange lands in England—James's friends desert to him—Convention Parliament meets—offers crown to William and Mary—publishes Declaration of Rights (1689)—this becomes law as the "Bill of Rights."
- (2) Chief Provisions :—
 - (1) Dispensing or suspending power of Crown illegal.
 - (2) Court of Ecclesiastical Commission illegal.
 - (3) Levying taxes without consent of parliament illegal.
 - (4) Keeping standing army in times of peace illegal.
 - (5) Subjects' right to petition the sovereign.
 - (6) Freedom of election and of speech in parliament.

- (7) Parliament to be held frequently.
- (8) William and Mary to be King and Queen, then their children if any, then Anne and her descendants—Papists to be excluded.
- (3) Importance: Divine right and discretionary power of Crown disappears—henceforth Monarchy limited—legal powers of Crown defined—freedom and importance of Commons asserted. Ranks with Magna Carta and Habeas Corpus as bulwark of English Liberty.

III. THE PENINSULAR WAR.

- (1) Napoleon master of most of continental Europe—has conquered Holland, Italy; finally crushed Austria at Austerlitz and Prussia at Jena; only on sea England victorious. Has his brother Joseph proclaimed king of Spain—Spaniards resist and rise—England resolves to assist them—sends an army to Portugal under Wellington (1808).
- (2) Wellington defeats French at Roliça and Vimiera (1808)—is superseded by Dalrymple, who allows French to evacuate Portugal. Sir John Moore retreats to Corunna—turns and defeats Soult (1809) and covers embarkation of troops.
- (3) Wellington in supreme command (1809)—wins Talavera (1809)—holds lines of Torres Vedras (1810)—defeats Massena at Busaco (1810) and Fuentes d'Onoro (1811). Beresford wins Albuera (1811). Wellington takes Badajoz and Ciudad Rodrigo—defeats main French army at Salamanca—enters Madrid (1812). Wins Vittoria and The Pyrenees—drives French across border (1813). France invaded—Soult defeated at Toulouse (1814).
- (4) Napoleon meanwhile fails in Russia—is defeated at Leipsic. Owing to this and to Peninsular war abdicates and retires to Elba.

IV. NEW ZEALAND.

- (1) The Islands: North, South, Stewart (small)—surrounded by Pacific Ocean—1000 miles S.E. of Australia. Size of England and Wales.
- (2) Natural features: Mountains: N. all over; S. range along West. Rivers: unimportant. Lakes: N. Taupo; S. Te Anau and many others. Bays: N. Hauraki Gulf, Hawke Bay (few harbours); S. Tasman Bay, Milford Sound (good harbours). Capes: N. Maria Van Diemen, East, Palliser, Egmont; S. Farewell, West, East Head. Stewart: South-West. Climate: resembles that of British Isles. Soil fertile.
- (3) Political: Population 1,000 000. Towns: N. Wellington, Auckland, Napier; S. Christchurch, Port Lyttleton, Dunedin. Industries: corn, timber, gold, coals, sheep, cattle. Exports: wool, frozen meat, corn, gold.
- (4) Communications: railways frequent.
- (5) Government: Part of British Empire, self-governing Colony; Governor and two Houses—advanced democratic.
- (6) Conclusion: History: discovered by Capt. Cook 1770—Maori Wars, etc. Education: elementary (free), secondary, very good. Nation prosperous—race good—scenery beautiful and varied.

V. SUGAR.

- (1) Carbohydrate— $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$ —crystalline—sweet.
- (2) Occurrence : originally in the East—thence to Spain—thence to W. Indies—now also cultivated in British Guiana, Mauritius, Natal, Fiji, Queensland, Ceylon, United States. In W. Indies and Guiana worked originally by slaves—now sometimes by Indian coolies. Not much used in Europe before 18th century.
- (3) Growth. Land dyked—becomes rich : canals supplied with fresh water when possible. Canes grown from cuttings from stem—planted in even rows—as much light and air as possible—worst weeded out—grow 8-15 feet high, $1\frac{1}{2}$ -2 inches thick.
- (4) Manufacture : Canes cut down when ripe—brought down to factories by canals—crushed, torn into shreds, or macerated with hot water or steam—sugar crystallised out—purified—often further refined in Europe.

3. Throw into the form of continuous narrative the following summary of events :—

A.D. 1640. The Long Parliament meets in November. Attack on King's Ministers. Impeachment of Strafford. Arrest of Archbishop Laud.

1641. Feb.—Triennial Bill passed.

March.—Trial of Strafford.

April-May.—The charges against Strafford not amounting to high treason, he is charged under a Bill of Attainder and executed.

Bill providing against adjournment or dissolution of Parliament without its own consent.

June.—Ship-money declared illegal. Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission abolished.

Sept.-Oct.—Recess of Parliament.

Nov.—Grand Remonstrance presented to the King. Division between Cavaliers and Roundheads first apparent.

1642. Jan.—Attempted arrest of five members. Commons demand control of militia.

May.—Falkland, Hyde, and a number of peers and members of the Commons secede to the King.

July 12.—Army raised for the "defence of King and Parliament." Essex made Captain-General.

Aug. 22.—Charles raises Royal Standard at Nottingham. (M)

4. Construct from the following notes, as well as from your own knowledge, as good an account as you can of the geography of Austria-Hungary :—

Austria-Hungary, a monarchy. Largest country in Europe, except Russia. Remarkable for great variety of configuration, climate, races, languages, and governments.

Boundaries : Russia, Germany, the Adriatic, etc.

Mountain Systems : Alps, Carpathians, Bohemian, and Moravian ranges.

Plains : Lower Austria, Hungary, and Slavonia.

Rivers : Danube, Dniester, Adige, Vistula, Elbe.

Gulfs : Trieste, Quarnero, Cattaro.

Population : Germans, Slavonians, Roumanians, Magyars, etc.

Cities—Resources—Trade—Internal Communications. (M)

5. Write a paragraph, not exceeding one page in length, on each of the following :—

- (1) The Feudal System.
- (2) Evening.
- (3) The Rhine.
- (4) The character of Henry VII.
- (5) Sunday.
- (6) A wild animal.
- (7) Wild flowers.
- (8) The rebellion of Jack Cade.
- (9) An English county.
- (10) The Sun.
- (11) Water.
- (12) A political meeting.

6. Write a short paragraph, explaining and illustrating the following :—

- (1) "More haste, less speed."
- (2) "A burnt child dreads the fire."
- (3) "All that glitters is not gold."
- (4) "Familiarity breeds contempt."
- (5) "Too many cooks spoil the broth."
- (6) "A new broom sweeps clean."
- (7) "A friend in need is a friend indeed."
- (8) "Honesty is the best policy."

7. Draw up an outline and write a short piece of composition (300-400 words) on each of the following :—

- (1) A day in school.
- (2) Natural features of one of the English counties.
- (3) The battle of Waterloo.
- (4) The conquest of Ireland in Henry II.'s reign.
- (5) Your favourite novel.
- (6) Clive.
- (7) Japan.
- (8) An ancient building you have visited.
- (9) A walk in the country.
- (10) The bicycle.
- (11) Tea or Coffee.
- (12) South Africa.
- (13) The barometer.
- (14) The reign of Elizabeth.
- (15) General Gordon.
- (16) Wolfe.
- (17) Minor British Possessions.
- (18) The Restoration of 1660.
- (19) Spring and Autumn : a comparison.
- (20) Cardinal Wolsey.
- (21) A storm.
- (22) The Revolution of 1688.
- (23) Country life and town life : a comparison.
- (24) An important town in England.
- (25) Your favourite recreation.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE ESSAY

329. **T**HE ESSAY is the highest form of Composition. It is intended, by description, illustration, and criticism, to expound a particular subject, and to give expression to our thoughts on that subject in as clear and beautiful a manner as possible. Hence the Essay must be, in the first place, **original**; we cannot find it in any book of reference, although the main facts to be utilised can often be thus discovered; and further, no two people will probably treat the same subject in exactly the same way.

Then, again, the Essay must be **critical**; it is in this respect a more ambitious exercise than a mere piece of composition which, broadly speaking, only reproduces in our own language what we have read. In the Essay we have to examine materials at hand, and besides selecting the suitable and rejecting the unsuitable, we have to apply our own judgment to the result.

Essay-writing should therefore not only improve our command of English; it should also serve to strengthen our reasoning faculties. Very frequently we have to treat of a controversial subject; then both sides of the case must be estimated with great care and impartiality, and our own conclusion formed from the data set forth.

330. **SCOPE OF THE ESSAY**—Before putting pen to paper it is essential to obtain a clear understanding of what the subject set for the Essay means and what is its scope.

For instance, in the subject, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown," the main idea on which the Essay should be built is that those who have the greatest position in this world have also great responsibilities and anxiety. In the subject, "A penny

saved is a penny gained," the main idea is economy and thrift.

Again, let us consider the subjects: (1) *Shakspeare*, (2) *The Works of Shakspeare*, (3) *The Life of Shakspeare*.

An inexperienced writer would consider that the same essay might be written equally well on all three—in other words, he would fail to understand the scope of his subject.

The **first** is the most general of the three. It may be treated on the broadest lines, and should certainly include a general appreciation of the genius of Shakspeare, with references to his works, and should touch on his personal history and the times in which he lived.

The **second** should deal almost entirely with his works—their nature, their beauties, and the genius they display.

The **third** is a biography pure and simple; reference will, of course, be made to Shakspeare's works, but only as they come into the course of his life.

331. PRELIMINARIES—A clear idea of the meaning of the title of the Essay and its scope having been obtained, the subject should then be carefully thought out. Various authorities on the subject should be consulted, and notes may be made on anything suitable. There is a great art even in such an apparently simple matter as taking notes; they should be brief and to the point. Then any original ideas which occur to the mind, and any apt quotation, proverb, or illustration bearing on the subject should be jotted down in any order. Next, the Essay should be planned out. Main headings—on each of which a paragraph is to be built up—should be carefully chosen; and the various items of information previously noted somewhat at random should now be arranged under these headings. When this has been accomplished, a clear conception should have been obtained of how the Essay will run. Further information or ideas will probably now occur to the mind; and these should be added briefly to the outline in appropriate places.

Finally, when the outline is as satisfactory and as perfect as the time at our disposal will allow, the Essay may be begun.

We should advise the student to spend *at least* one-sixth of his time in thinking out the subject and drawing up his outline, and about three-quarters in writing the Essay, thus leaving about one-twelfth for revision and correction. That is, if an hour is given for the Essay—and this is somewhere about the maximum period allowable for the Essay at Matriculation—ten minutes or a quarter of an hour may be devoted to the outline and five minutes to revision.

In this case the length of the Essay should be two or three pages.

NOTE.—The rules given in Chapter xxiv. should be thoroughly studied. If only they are borne in mind, and what is more important though more difficult, *acted upon*, the student will not go far wrong in his essay-writing, even though—he being, probably, not a genius—his work may not be of the high literary merit of some of our classical essayists.

332. CLASSIFICATION OF ESSAYS—A cursory glance at the subjects set for Essays at various examinations will show us their great variety; almost any subject in any form may be given. It is consequently impossible to divide Essays into classes which shall be mutually exclusive; there must needs be some overlapping, and there must of necessity be some which fall into no class at all.

With this restriction, however, the following classification will be found useful:—

- I. Essays on Concrete Subjects.
- II. „ „ Abstract Subjects.

333. ESSAYS ON CONCRETE SUBJECTS—In this class are included those for which some *facts* or material can be utilised as a basis. Such Essays will be mainly of a descriptive or narrative character, though reflection and criticism will also have its place; most of the subjects treated in the last chapter fall under this heading.

Concrete Essays may be subdivided according as they deal with:—

(1) History or Biography: *e.g.* Alfred the Great, The Norman Dynasty, The Hundred Years' War.

(2) Social or Political Progress: *e.g.* England under the Tudors,

The Rise and Progress of Party Government, The English Parliament.

(3) Geography: *e.g.* The Nile, The Lakes of Europe, The Balkan Peninsula, Climate and its effects on the Human Race, Great Rivers of America.

(4) Literature: *e.g.* A description of one of Scott's Novels, The Works of Shakspeare, Poetry of the Nineteenth Century, The English Drama.

(5) Science: *e.g.* The manufacture of Steel, Modern applications of Science, The Sun.

(6) Miscellaneous subjects: *e.g.* A Storm at Sea, A Strike, Summer holidays, Town and Country life.

334. CHARACTER OF THE ESSAY—Sufficient help has already been given (Chapter xxiv.) on simpler subjects of this nature. The arrangement and method of drawing up outlines will be equally suitable for an Essay. The main difference should be in the actual composition. We have now to ensure that our work shall not appear as a fragment, as a mere answer to a question, but as a treatise on the subject—a little book, in fact. The Essay must therefore be a unity in itself. Although, as has been said, Essays on Concrete subjects will be in the main descriptive or narrative in nature, much of the success of the Essay will depend upon the thoughtful and judicial manner in which the subject at our disposal is treated.

335. EXAMPLES AND NOTES—We will now consider an example in each of the above sub-divisions. The subjects selected will be of a more complex nature than those of the previous chapter.

(1) THE NORMAN DYNASTY.

What does this subject include? Briefly, an Essay is required which deals with the rule of the Norman kings. As it is a very general subject covering a long period (1066-1154), care must be exercised that information on any one point be not too detailed.

The Conquest and the battle of Hastings will (after a few introductory remarks) form a natural starting-point; but it would

be absurd to spend a great part of the Essay over a description of the battle of Hastings, however interesting that event might be. We shall have to consider:—

(1) The Normans as a race; (2) The Conquest; (3) The immediate changes in England due to that event; (4) The individual Norman monarchs and the chief events of their reigns; (5) The lasting effect of the Norman rule (a) On English laws and customs; (b) On the country generally; (c) On the language.

In this manner we make up our rough notes. The OUTLINE to be based on this little analysis will be somewhat as follows:—

Introduction: The Normans in Normandy before 1066. Norman influences in England under Edward the Confessor.

Preliminary: William claims the crown—Hastings—Harold's difficulties—Norman dynasty in England begins.

William I. (1066-1087): Continuation of the Conquest—English Rebellions—The Feudal System and Government.

William II. (1087-1100): war with Robert—quarrel with Church—character.

Henry I. (1100-1135): conciliation of English—charter, marriage, justice—war with French Normans—quarrel with Church—character.

Stephen (1135-1154): Civil war—retrograde movement—Wallingford. Effects of Norman rule:—

- (1) Feudal system established.
- (2) Normans dominant but gradually mix with Saxons.
- (3) Language modified by Norman French.
- (4) Education and church improved.
- (5) England ruled well.

(2) THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.

This is a fairly straightforward history. We have to select our matter from almost every reign, but the limits of an essay will not permit of too detailed a treatment.

After a brief notice of the institutions leading up to the Parliament, we shall have to deal with (1) Its foundation; (2) Development up to the Tudors; (3) Increase in power of Commons under the Stuarts; (4) Predominance of the Commons under the Hanoverians; (5) Present constitution and power of both Houses.

OUTLINE.

Introduction: (1) Witenagemot under Saxons: King, royal family, Archbishops, Bishops, Ealdormen. Powers theoretically great—but at will of the king.

- (2) Great Council under Normans: constitution nearly same: generally called three times a year.

- (3) Under John, rising of Barons and Clergy prepare the way for a Parliament.

Foundation: (1) The "Mad Parliament" summoned—really only Great Council. Simon de Montfort's scheme for representative government—delayed by civil wars.

- (2) 1295. First real Parliament—bishops, clergy, barons, two knights from each shire, two burgesses from each borough.

Development: (1) Edward III. calls Parliament—appeals to them for money.

- (2) Division into two houses about 1338.

- (3) Commons demand treasury accounts under Richard II.—gradual establishment of right to control finance.

- (4) Parliament grants crown to Henry IV. and Edward IV.

- (5) Decrease in power during Wars of Roses—reasons.

- (6) Early Tudor sovereigns supreme—Parliament meets irregularly—Commons begin to rise in power under Elizabeth—object to monopolies.

Increase of power: (1) Quarrels with James I.

- (2) Early Parliaments of Charles I.—Petition of Rights (1628)—The Short Parliament—the Long Parliament (1640)—Civil War—Commons triumphant.

- (3) The Revolution 1688. Limited Monarchy. Bill of Rights. Beginnings of Party Government.

- (4) Predominance under the Georges. Reasons.

- (5) Union with Scotch Parliament (1707) and with Irish (1801).

Present Constitution: (1) House of Lords—Peers Spiritual and Temporal.

- (2) House of Commons—numbers: English, Scotch, Irish.

- (3) Rights and privileges.

- (4) Work and methods.

III. THE GREAT RIVERS OF AMERICA.

Chief: St Lawrence, Mississippi, Amazon.

Less important: Mackenzie, Yukon, Rio Grande del Norte, La Plata, Orinoco.

St Lawrence: (1) Vast system of lakes and river—total length 2000 miles—river alone 700 miles—flows E. into Atlantic.

- (2) Lakes: Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario. Rapids avoided by canals, esp. Welland avoiding Niagara.

- (3) Tributary: Ottawa (left).

- (4) Towns on River or Lakes: Duluth, Chicago, Detroit (U.S.) Toronto, Montreal, Quebec (Canada).

- (5) Great waterway—useful for central Canada and United States.

Mississippi: (1) Flows S. into G. of Mexico—drains whole of U.S. between Rockies and Appalachians—length with Missouri 4000 miles.

- (2) Tributaries: Missouri (1400 miles from source to junction), Ohio (left), Arkansas and Red River (right).

- (3) Towns: S. Paul, Minneapolis, S. Louis, Kansas City (Missouri), Cincinnati and Louisville (Ohio), Vicksburg, New Orleans (at mouth).

Amazon : (1) Flows E. through Brazil—length 4000 miles from Andes to Atlantic—very broad estuary—basin equal to Russia

(2) Chief Tributaries : Negro (left), Madeira (right).

(3) No important towns—country undeveloped—great possibilities — forest land (*seltas*)—tropical—abundant animal and plant life.

Mackenzie : connected with lake system—Great Bear and Great Slave—flows into Arctic Ocean—tributaries Athabasca and Peace.

Yukon : length 2400 miles—flows through desolate country—gold.

Rio Grande del Norte : 1400 miles—north of Mexico—scanty rainfall.

La Plata : immense estuary formed by Parana and Uruguay—with Parana 2300 miles—Buenos Ayres at mouth.

Orinoco : 1500 miles—many tributaries.

IV. THE ENGLISH DRAMA.

Origin : (1) Religious—at first part of Scriptures recited dramatically in church.

(2) Mystery Plays—events from Life of Christ, *e.g.* Resurrection. Miracle Plays—mainly from Old Testament and Lives of Saints. Acted outside church : from 1268 Guilds acted whole cycles of these plays. Object : popular instruction in religion.

(3) Morality plays—next step—Virtues and Vices as persons.

(4) Interludes—short farces—transition to regular drama.

Elizabethan Drama : (1) First Comedy—Udall's "Roister Doister," 1561. First Tragedy—Sackville and Norton's "Gorboduc," 1562. Several plays translated.

(2) Early dramatists Greene, Peele, Lyly, Lodge, Nash. Marlowe—forerunner of Shakspeare—wrote Tamburlaine, Jew of Malta, Dr Faustus, Edward II.

(3) Shakspeare : greatest dramatist of the world : his plays : his genius.

(4) Jonson, Beaumont, Fletcher, Massinger, Ford, Webster—gradual decay of Elizabethan drama.

Restoration Drama : degenerate—coarse—mainly comedy showing contemporary manners. Dryden, Congreve, Wycherley, Vanbrugh, Farquhar. Influenced by French drama.

Later Drama : (1) Goldsmith "She Stoops to Conquer," Sheridan "Rivals" and "School for Scandal"—sentimental comedy—brilliant wit.

(2) Present day drama mainly non-literary.

V. APPLICATIONS OF SCIENCE IN MODERN TIMES.

Main objects : (1) Health and Comfort, (2) Commerce.

Health and Comfort : (1) Surgery—new instruments—more perfect methods.

(2) Knowledge of diseases—discovery of bacilli.

(3) Sanitation and hygiene—new methods—disinfectants—public health.

(4) Anæsthetics—avoidance of pain.

(5) Nursing.

- (6) Medicine—drugs and their effects.
- (7) Electricity—X-rays, induction coil.

Commerce: (1) Machinery—more and more perfect—increases manufactures, *e.g.* cotton.

- (2) Steam-power: railways, steamboats.
- (3) Motor-traction—a new development.
- (4) Light—electricity, gas.
- (5) Telegraph, telephone, wireless telegraphy, electric bells, clocks, etc.
- (6) Chemical processes—indigo, gas, coal-tar products.
- (7) Sound—gramophone for amusement.

NOTE.—The above outline is a general one: a student of any particular branch of science, *e.g.* engineering, would naturally treat that branch rather more fully, though he should not omit the others.

VI. SUMMER HOLIDAYS.

Summer: time for longest holidays—usually some weeks—fine weather—warm—longest days.

Objects of Holiday: *rest* after work of the year, *change* from routine of everyday life, *preparation* for future work.

Holiday Resorts: chiefly of three kinds:—

- (1) Seaside: cool and bracing (East Coast), hot and relaxing (South); quiet or lively, *e.g.* Clevedon or Yarmouth. Advantages: fresh sea air, bathing, boating, sea-fishing, the sands, etc. Example.
- (2) Country: quiet life—fresh air, walks, cycling, driving, simple life, perhaps at farm. Example. Country and seaside may often be combined.
- (3) Abroad: complete change—new interests: customs, language, food, sights—educative and interesting. Examples: Paris, Switzerland, The Rhine.

Choice of Holiday dependent on:—

- (1) Individual taste: *e.g.* for a quiet restful holiday; quite alone for fishing, walking, cycling; with friends; to be in or near a town for concerts, amusements, etc.
- (2) Circumstances: *e.g.* family or friends' convenience.
- (3) Cost: holiday abroad generally more expensive.

Conclusion: thorough enjoyment of holiday of whatever kind—banishment of business cares and worry. Results: improvement of health—ready to take up work again with refreshed spirit.

336. ESSAYS ON ABSTRACT SUBJECTS include those which have to be built up almost entirely on our own thoughts, the facts being such as we may use to illustrate our arguments.

These Essays may be subdivided according as they deal with:—

(1) Moral and Philosophical Subjects: *e.g.* National peculiarities, A happy life, "Where there's a will there's a way," "Necessity knows no law," "A penny saved is a penny gained."

(2) Purely Abstract qualities: *e.g.* Truth, Courage, Friendship, Character, Discipline.

(3) Controversial Subjects : *e.g.* The advantages and disadvantages of a classical education, Capital versus Labour, Is Capital Punishment justifiable? The value of Legends.

337. GENERAL REMARKS—Subjects of this nature present considerable difficulty to the beginner. In previous work we have had some material at our disposal, either what we have been able to observe ourselves, or what we have been able to discover in books. We are now required to discuss something purely theoretical—abstract qualities or relations such as those mentioned above—and the treatment must be almost entirely the outcome of our own reflections.

Everyone knows how much easier it is to obtain a good idea of what a table or a house is, than of such a thing as Courage in the abstract. Most people could recount the deeds of some particularly courageous men; but their ideas on the subject of courage itself are generally decidedly hazy.

In the highest sense, then, an Essay on such a subject is *original*; it requires research work into the realms of *thought*. We have before us an open field for speculation on the given subject; we may take what attitude we please towards it—provided always that it be sensible and consistent—and there is no right or wrong way in the method of dealing with the subject. Two Essays of equal value might be written on the same abstract theme from entirely opposite points of view, according to the personal judgment or bias of the writer.

Moreover, to add to our difficulties, there is, generally, no natural *beginning* or *end* to such an Essay: nor is there any obvious method of procedure or development of the subject. Here again we have freedom of choice; and though this makes our work pleasanter and less stereotyped, it adds greatly to its difficulty. Hence, if for no other reason, the student should follow the plan of this book in writing on some concrete subjects first.

It may be remarked that the advantages of writing abstract essays are incalculable. Nothing is more stimulative to original thought, nothing tends to develop and train the mind better than

the composition of an essay of this nature. Here too a student of above the average ability may gain distinction; and it is the duty of all, however humble, to aim at the highest.

NOTE.—The student should study the Essays of well-known writers—particularly those of Bacon—on abstract subjects. He will obtain from them a good deal of information, a good idea of the method of treating such subjects, and assistance in the art of opening and closing such an Essay.

338. SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE ABSTRACT ESSAY

—As the treatment of an abstract essay may be extremely varied, it is impossible to lay down any hard and fast rules for a scheme on which to build. Most of the following features, however, should appear; the order in which they are given is suitable to many subjects, but may be varied at will:—

SCHEME: (1) Introductory remark, if necessary.

(2) Definition of subject—scope and importance.

(3) Relation—contrast or resemblance—to other subjects (generally familiar ones).

(4) Opinion. Reason for the same.

(5) Illustrations from history of national or individual life or from legendary sources.

(6) Apt quotations or proverbs.

(7) Conclusion—final summing up—moral drawn if necessary.

In *Controversial Subjects* instead of (4) must be substituted:—

(a) Arguments for one side—with reasons.

(b) " " other " " "

(c) Weighing the evidence—decision.

Judgments given should be supported by as many appropriate illustrations as possible; but these must be *to the point*, otherwise they are worse than useless, for they weaken the argument.

339. EXAMPLES AND NOTES—We will now consider an example from each of the sub-divisions mentioned in § 336.

(1) "NECESSITY KNOWS NO LAW."

Introduction: Necessity—known also as "mother of invention"—now in less pleasing light as law-breaker. Laws have to be broken sometimes and new ones made—then "time is out of joint."

Illustrations from history :

- (1) French Revolution—liberty a necessity—all must give way—Bastille, king, laws swept away—oppressed become oppressors—outrages against all laws.
- (2) Reformation—revival of learning showed right of individual conscience and interpretation—laws of church of Rome and tyranny of priestcraft overthrown.

Illustrations from drama :

- (1) Hamlet has necessity for revenge—breaks all laws to accomplish it.
- (2) Brutus for his country's sake breaks laws of friendship and love. "It must be by his death," etc.

In ordinary life : Men and women break laws owing to their own needs or needs of those dependent on them, *e.g.* a poor man stealing food or robbing.

Conclusion :

When "necessity knows no law" culminating point in struggle of nation or individual is reached.

Desperation conquers all—victim sacrifices life, honour, everything for real or fancied necessity.

(2) TRUTH.

Introduction : Concise definition difficult. Truth associated with what is genuine and without deceit. Pilate's query : "What is truth ?" One of chief virtues—basis of goodness and honesty.

Effect on Society : Society impossible without it—even deceit and intrigue use it as a cloak, *e.g.* treachery based on assumed fidelity.

Causes tempting to untruthfulness :

- (1) Deliberate intent to deceive.
 - (a) for personal gain—example.
 - (b) for mere amusement.
 - (c) to cover a sin—example.
- (2) Ignorance—less reprehensible—example.
- (3) Cowardice—for what results may be—example.
- (4) Flattery—of persons in higher rank.

Advantages of Truth :

- (1) Character for truthfulness brings trust and respect. Reverse—lack of confidence and suspicion. "Honesty is the best policy."
- (2) Builds up moral nature : brings other virtues into play. Untruth leads to other vices.

"O what a tangled web we weave
When first we practise to deceive."

Truth many-sided : opinions differ—opposite points of view—example.

Conclusion : Importance of training child in truthful ways—estimation of power of truth.

"This above all : to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

(3) A SCIENTIFIC VERSUS A LITERARY EDUCATION.

Scientific education : study of sciences, Chemistry, Physics, Botany, etc.

Literary education : study of languages and literature.

Arguments for Scientific education :

- (1) Introduction to wonders and beauties of nature—broadening views and sympathies.
- (2) Training in carefulness and precision.
- (3) Importance of processes of thought employed—induction and deduction.
- (4) Development of originality and inventive faculty.
- (5) Practical uses in skilled trades or professions, *e.g.* (a) Engineer—mechanical or electrical, (b) Chemist, (c) Doctor, (d) Photographer.

Arguments for Literary Education :

- (1) Language a record of thoughts past and present—knowledge of languages increases our range of thought.
- (2) Language an instrument of thought—by which we express ourselves.
- (3) Importance of knowledge of other nations, customs and modes of thought.
- (4) Grammar and study of a language a good training for the mind : literature cultivates artistic and æsthetic faculties.
- (5) Practical uses of Modern languages—business and travel.

Conclusion :

Scientific most practical and useful for after life : Literary educative in the highest sense.

Combination of two sides the best for general education. For older pupils, specialisation in one or the other according to taste and future career. Examples.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVI.**SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS.**

1. Popular Superstitions.
2. The Alps.
3. Are second thoughts the best ?
4. The Armada.
5. The educational value of the drama and the novel.
6. The great rivers of America.
7. Hobbies.
8. The reign of Queen Victoria.
9. The future of Africa.
10. Free Libraries.
11. Social problems of the twentieth century.
12. Egypt.
13. The relations between England and the United States since 1750.
14. Sympathy.
15. "Sweet are the uses of adversity."
16. The Peninsular War.
17. The uses of books.
18. The continents of Europe and Asia : a comparison.
19. English life and customs in the days of Elizabeth.

20. The Wars of the Roses.
21. England in 1837 and 1897 : a comparison.
22. " Knowledge is power."
23. The rise of Japan.
24. The growth and development of the English Language.
25. Our Indian Empire : its foundation and subsequent development.
26. The Industries of Great Britain and Ireland.
27. " Happy is the country that has no history."
28. Poets of the Nineteenth Century.
29. The advantages of education.
30. The Tudor sovereigns.
31. English Oratory.
32. Hero Worship.
33. " Acts our angels are, or good or ill."
34. Time-saving Appliances in Modern Life.
35. Lost Opportunities.
36. Holiday Resorts.
37. Business Habits.
38. Gardening.
39. Travelling in the olden days and to-day.
40. Fashion.
41. " Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."
42. True patriotism.
43. A great Exhibition.
44. " It is more blessed to give than to receive."
45. Newspapers.
46. Good manners.
47. The best way to spend a day's holiday.
48. England's maritime power.
49. " Let knowledge grow from more to more.
But more of reverence in us dwell."
50. The Problem of Unemployment ; how to account for, and how to solve it.
51. Wonders and uses of the microscope.
52. " Not once or twice in our rough island-story.
The path of duty was the way to glory."
53. Alfred the Great.
54. Natural advantages of the British Isles.
55. Rebellions in England during the fourteenth century.
56. The products of South America.
57. The foundation and progress of the German Empire.
58. The Hundred Years' War.
59. The home and foreign policy of the Tudors.
60. The Crusades, with especial reference to the part played by the English therein.
61. The great charters of English liberty.
62. English explorations.
63. England at the time of Edward the Confessor.
64. The struggle between the Crown and the Parliament during the seventeenth century.
65. Marlborough and Wellington ; a comparison.
66. The Capitals of Europe.
67. " The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

68. The longest reigns in English history and their relative importance.
69. The relations between geography and history.
70. Party government.
71. Trade follows the flag.
72. The Balance of Power among European States (i) in Europe, (ii) in other parts of the world.
73. Municipal Trading.
74. A railway journey from London to Penzance *or* Edinburgh.
75. The Revival of Learning in the Sixteenth Century.
76. The Colonial Expansion of England.
77. Scientific Advance in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries.
78. An account of a walking or cycling tour.
79. The Decimal System.
80. "Kind hearts are more than coronets, And simple faith than Norman blood."
81. Journalism.
82. The advantages of foreign travel.
83. The uses of discipline.
84. Arbitration.
85. Success as a test of merit.
86. National greatness.
87. The debt of English Literature to Roman and Greek literatures.
88. The relative advantages of Health, Wealth, and Wisdom.
89. The advantages of studying our own language and literature.
90. The value of examinations.
91. Methods by which absent friends may communicate.
92. Topics of the day.
93. Compare the proverbs: "Penny wise, pound foolish" and "Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves."
94. Recreation.
95. The pleasure and profit of country rambles.
96. Printing.
97. Historic pageants.
98. Presence of Mind.
99. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing."
100. A national strike.
101. The influence of climate on a people, as illustrated by the cases of India, England, and Scotland respectively.
102. A comparison of the career of an Engineer and a Business man *or* of a Doctor and a Lawyer.
103. Compulsory Education.
104. School Museums and Libraries.
105. Chivalry.
106. Garden cities.
107. One of the following poems: Gray's "Elegy," Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner," Scott's "Marmion," Macaulay's "Horatius," Tennyson's "Idylls of the King."
108. One of the following prose works: "Pilgrim's Progress," "Utopia," "Westward Ho!" "Pendennis," "Waverley."
109. One of the following characters from Shakespeare's plays: Antony, Orlando, Iago, Rosalind, Perdita, Miranda, Bottom.
110. A writer who has distinguished himself both in prose and poetry.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE LETTER

340. GENERAL PRINCIPLES—To those who have had some practice in writing Essays, the composition of the body of a letter should present little difficulty.

The difference between an Essay and a Letter is chiefly one of **form**; there are certain technical details peculiar to a letter, and these will be explained in the course of this chapter.

The following general principles are applicable to letters of all kinds:—

(1) Careful attention should be paid to **writing, spelling and neatness**. Alterations should rarely be made; when absolutely necessary, words should be neatly crossed out and the correction written above; erasure should be avoided. It is decidedly “bad form” to send out a letter which is **untidy**—even to an intimate friend.

(2) The rules of **Grammar and Punctuation** should be duly observed. The Full Stop and Apostrophe need the most attention; Commas are of less importance here than in the Essay—except to make the meaning perfectly clear—and Semi-colons are of rare occurrence.

(3) Though **Colloquialisms** may be used—particularly in a letter to a friend—actual slang is never permissible.

(4) No **excuses** for delay in writing, untidiness, etc., should be made. **Postscripts** should be avoided as far as possible.

(5) There should be a narrow **margin**—about half an inch—on the left hand side of the body of the letter.

(6) A letter should be perfectly **clear** and without exaggeration. Letters are often used as evidence in a court of law.

(7) Every letter should be critically read before it is sent off.

NOTE.—Several other points which apply more or less particularly to business letters will be discussed under that heading.

341. KINDS OF LETTERS—Letters may be divided into three classes:—Private, Business and Official.

A Private Letter is one which is sent to a friend or acquaintance. As it is intended for his perusal alone, it may be free and colloquial in style. Logical order of detail need not be strictly observed. Humour may be freely employed.

A Business Letter, as its name implies, is one which is written to some person with whom you may or may not be personally acquainted, dealing with some business matter. It is much more formal and carefully worded than a private letter; it should be brief and should confine itself rigidly to the business on hand.

An Official Letter is one written by an official of the Government or of a Local Authority on business matters. It is much more formal and stilted in expression than a business letter.

342. PARTS OF A PRIVATE LETTER—

(1) **Heading.** This consists of the Address of the sender followed by the date, written at the top right hand corner of the letter.

(2) **Salutation**—such as My dear Father, Dear George, Dear Mr Smith, according to the closeness of the acquaintance.

(3) **Body** of the letter. This is written in a chatty, narrative style, and should be as interesting as possible to the person to whom it is sent. Any sign of abruptness should be avoided, for this may appear to the reader as discourtesy; and no remark, whether humorous or serious, should be capable of bearing an interpretation in the slightest degree offensive. It should be remembered that letters do not smile.

Free use may be made of the personal pronouns, even of the First Person Singular; though it is better not to begin many sentences with "I." The forms: "It seems to me . . .," "It has occurred to me . . .," "Probably . . ." are examples of a pleasant variation.

(4) **Ending**—such as: I am, Your affectionate son, John.

I remain, Yours sincerely, John Smith.

Believe me, Yours very truly, J. Smith.

These may be varied according to the closeness of acquaintance. The ending is written towards the right at the end of the letter.

343. SPECIMEN OF A PRIVATE LETTER—

24 MILTON STREET, BRISTOL,
17th May 1906.

DEAR GEORGE,

Your letter last week was, as usual, very welcome. I am glad to hear that the examination went off all right and I hope you have been most successful. Let me know the result when it comes out, won't you? I have not been doing very much lately beyond ordinary business. Last Monday, however, we had a holiday which I used to take a trip to Lynmouth. The boat left here at 9 o'clock and arrived at Lynmouth at 1 o'clock. The weather was lovely and the sea quite calm. After a light lunch, I walked to Watersmeet by the river and returned by the road. Then I climbed the hill to Lynton and took a short walk in the direction of the High Rocks, as I think they are called. The boat left again at half past five, and after a somewhat cold and windy passage, we arrived at Bristol at 9.45. It was altogether a most enjoyable day.

I have done some shooting and a little tennis, as far as the weather has permitted.

Please give my kind regards to your parents. I hope to see you all again in a few weeks. Before that, however, I shall expect another letter from you. Don't forget to write! With very best wishes,

I remain,

Your sincere friend,

JAMES ALLEN.

344. PARTS OF A BUSINESS LETTER—

(1) **Heading**: as above.

(2) **Name and Address** of person written to. This additional feature should be placed on the left hand side of the letter, lower than the date, and immediately above the salutation.

(3) **Salutation**: Sir, Dear Sir, Gentlemen (never Dear Gentlemen), Madam, My Lord, etc.

(4) **Body** of the letter. Business letters are an important factor in the success of a firm, for it is largely from the correspondence of a firm that business men judge its standing. Moreover, business letters are often the only record of a transaction, and are consequently preserved for years. The following rules and hints may be given:—

- (a) Acknowledge the receipt of a letter the same day, even if a complete answer cannot then be sent.
 - (b) Be as brief as possible, and yet perfectly clear in your meaning. Short sentences and simple phraseology should be always employed.
 - (c) Avoid curtness and be **polite**, even when censure is necessary.
 - (d) Be absolutely correct in details. Any offer made or accepted should be definitely and explicitly stated.
 - (e) For a **Reply**, read the original carefully, and take care that your answer is fitting in every respect; the points raised should be dealt with in order, each forming the subject of a short paragraph.
 - (f) The **Style** of the letter should be, as far as possible, adapted to the class of business on hand.
- (5) **Ending**: Yours faithfully, Yours obediently, Your obedient servant, etc. A clerk on behalf of a firm should (when authorised) sign: J. Smith, p.p. (or per pro) Messrs Jones & Co.

345. SPECIMENS—

(1) *Application.*

15 CHARING STREET, PLUMSTEAD, KENT,
7th Oct. 1906.

To L. J. Smith, Esq.,
175 Bonchurch Street, London, E.
SIR,

In reply to your advertisement in the "Daily Telegraph" of Oct. 6th for a Junior Clerk, I beg to apply for the position. For the last four years I have been a pupil at the Woolwich Polytechnic Secondary School. Since leaving there three months ago, I have been working as a clerk in my father's office.

I can write shorthand freely (about 100 words a minute) and understand typewriting, although I have not had very much practice in the latter.

While at school I passed the Senior Oxford Local Examination with Third Class Honours and the London Matriculation—First Division; I have also several science certificates of the Board of Education.

The Principal of the Polytechnic has kindly offered to testify as to my character and ability.

My age is sixteen and a half.

Trusting that you will regard my application favourably,

I am, Sir,

Yours obediently,

J. G. JONES.

(2) *Order.*

To The Manager,
Messrs Johns & Son,
Edward Wharf, Woolwich.

121 BROWNTREE ROAD, ELTHAM,
6th Sept. 1906.

DEAR SIR,

I shall be obliged if you will send me 10 tons of best Wallsend Coal at 26s. per ton, and 5 tons of Kitchen Coal at 21s. per ton. I should be glad if you could manage to send the Kitchen Coal to-morrow (Friday), as I am running rather short.

Yours faithfully,
A. B. SOPES.

(3) *Reply to 2.*

To Mr A. B. Sopes,
121 Browntree Road, Eltham.

EDWARD WHARF, WOOLWICH.
7th Sept. 1906.

DEAR SIR,

We beg to acknowledge the receipt of your letter. We shall have great pleasure in despatching the Kitchen Coal this afternoon according to your request.

With regard to the Wallsend, we have to inform you that it has now risen in price to 28s. per ton. Shall we execute your order at that figure?

Yours obediently,
p.p. JOHNS & SON.
(J. B.)

(4) *Reply to 3.*

To The Manager,
Messrs Johns & Son,
Edward Wharf, Woolwich.

121 BROWNTREE ROAD, ELTHAM,
8th Sept. 1906.

DEAR SIR,

Many thanks for your prompt despatch of the Kitchen coal which is quite satisfactory. Please execute my original order (10 tons Wallsend) at the new price (28s. per ton), at your earliest convenience.

Yours faithfully,
A. B. SOPES.

(5)

To the Manager,
Messrs Johns & Son,
Edward Wharf, Woolwich.

121 BROWNTREE ROAD, ELTHAM.
14th Sept. 1906.

DEAR SIR,

Enclosed please find cheque for £19, 5s. in payment of your account. Please let me have a receipt at your convenience.

Yours faithfully,
A. B. SOPES.

346. FORMAL INVITATIONS are often given in the Third Person. The Address and Date are often placed *below* the letter on the left hand side. There is no salutation or ending to such a letter—if letter it can be called.

Specimens.**(1) Invitation.**

Mrs Smith requests the pleasure of the company of Mr and Mrs Brown to dinner on Saturday, May 25th, at 7 P.M.

204 JOHN STREET, BIRMINGHAM,
22nd May, 1906.

(2) Reply.

Mr and Mrs Brown regret that they are unable to accept Mrs Smith's kind invitation to dinner on the 25th, owing to a previous engagement.

187 MANFRED STREET, BIRMINGHAM,
23rd May, 1906.

347. AN OFFICIAL LETTER is of the same *form* as a business letter; it differs from a business letter only in its formality and legal phraseology. The beginning may be:

Sir, I take the liberty to . . .

or, My Lord, I have the honour to submit .
and the ending:

I have the honour to be, Your obedient servant.

Specimens of Official Letters will be found in the next chapters.

348. THE OUTSIDE ADDRESS of the Envelope. Example:

G. Jones, Esq., M.A.,
15 Broad Street,
Lewisham,
London, S.E.

NOTES.

(1) An ordinary person may be addressed as Mr J. Smith or J. Smith, Esq. Originally "Esq." was applied only to one who was independent or who belonged to a profession, but the distinction is now to a great extent lost, and the term may be applied to anyone of the middle or upper classes below the rank of a knight.

(2) Address:—

A Clergyman as Rev. J. Smith.

A Bishop as The Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Southwark.

An Officer in the Services as Major Jones, General Smith, etc.

A business firm as Messrs J. Smith & Co., Messrs Jones.

Titles or Academical Degrees are added after the name (or after "Esq.") except to intimate friends, e.g. C. Smith, Esq., M.D.; J. Jones, Esq., M.A., B.Sc.; Major Browne, D.S.O.

(3) *A lady* should be addressed as Miss Smith, Mrs Jones. In the case of sisters, the eldest is Miss Smith, the others Miss A. B. Smith, etc. If necessary to distinguish between married ladies of the same

name, the husband's initials or names are added, *e.g.* Mrs George Smith.

(4) If anyone is staying as a guest temporarily, it is better to address the letter "care of" (c/o) the hostess, *e.g.* J. Smith, Esq., c/o Mrs Jones.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVII.

1. Write the following private letters:—

- (1) Boy spending holiday with friends to his father or mother.
- (2) Parent's reply to No 1.
- (3) Boy or girl to friend describing his or her new school.
- (4) Reply to 3, asking which subject he or she likes best.
- (5) Congratulations to a friend on passing some examination.
- (6) To brother away from home describing the school sports.
- (7) To teacher, thanking him for post-card from France and describing holidays.
- (8) Boy to uncle describing business which he has just entered.
- (9) To friend inquiring how he likes his new post and inviting him to spend a week-end.
- (10) To former teacher, asking advice about a course of study with view to a degree.
- (11) To relation in Canada wishing him a happy Christmas.
- (12) From officer on ocean liner to friend at home.
- (13) Friend's reply to No 12.
- (14) To teacher asking for a testimonial as to character and industry while at school.
- (15) To friend describing a day's outing in the country.
- (16) Boy to friend stating that he likes winter better than summer and why.
- (17) Reply of friend—agreeing or disagreeing.
- (18) Letter to a friend in London, asking him to recommend lodgings for a few weeks.

2. Write the following business letters:—

- (1) Ordering various goods from the grocer.
- (2) Reply to No 1, stating that the goods are being sent, with the exception of two items which are at present out of stock.
- (3) Notice to landlord of intention to leave house.
- (4) Inquiry as to a new house and request to view the same.
- (5) Asking for an estimate for installation of electric light in new house.
- (6) Reply to No. 5, enclosing estimate.
- (7) Ordering daily paper, local weekly paper, and two monthly magazines, for the next three months.
- (8) Ironmonger ordering large quantities of various articles of wholesale firm as per their catalogue.
- (9) Testimonial from teacher concerning boy who is leaving school.
- (10) Testimonial from employer as to clerk.
- (11) Application for post as clerk in wholesale grocers.
- (12) Application for post as Junior Master in a secondary school.
- (13) Application for post as traveller to a business firm.

- (14) Application for post as engineer.
- (15) Favourable reply of employer to an application, appointing time and place for interview.
- (16) Letter to customers of late J. Sprigg, stating that you have taken over his business and have made various improvements.
- (17) Application for payment of quarterly account now due.

3. Write the following set of letters:—

- (1) A German firm to an English firm ordering woollen goods of various descriptions and prices as specified in enclosed order. Promise of further orders if satisfactory.
- (2) Enclosed order.
- (3) English firm stating that goods are being despatched, and recommending a certain new line of goods.
- (4) German firm acknowledging receipt of goods and ordering small quantity of new line; asking if English firm can recommend them a firm from which to purchase certain cotton goods.
- (5) English firm's reply.

NOTE.—The letters written should be kept for use as directed in exercises on Chapter xxviii.

CHAPTER XXVIII

INDEXING AND PRÉCIS-WRITING

349. **T**HE INDEX AND THE PRÉCIS are closely connected with one another, and each bears a relationship to the Essay and the Letter—the Précis resembling the Essay and the Index the Letter in certain respects.

The distinguishing characteristic of the Précis and the Index is that they summarise in the smallest and most convenient form a document or series of documents bearing on a particular subject.

350. **THEIR USE**—The head of a firm or government department often requires general information concerning a certain transaction. To acquire a full knowledge of the subject at first hand, it would be necessary for him to read everything of importance that had been written on the subject. Suppose, for instance, that the head of a firm needs information concerning a piece of business with another firm carried out during the past few months by his subordinates. He might read all the letters received from the other firm and the copies of the letters sent by his own firm. Or, again, suppose a Government official desires, for some purpose or other, to know how affairs have been progressing in some foreign country or colony. He would be obliged to hunt up all the letters that have passed between the foreign or colonial office and our consuls or officials in that country, and to pick out all the information he needs from the more or less irrelevant matter with which it is cloaked.

Now, probably, neither the head of the firm nor the government official has the time or the inclination to undertake this wearisome task; and, as a matter of fact, it would be a waste of energy on their part. For what is actually needed is the *essence*

of the whole—contained, probably, in a tenth part of the whole correspondence. Instead, therefore, of all this labour, some trustworthy subordinate does all the reading necessary, and makes notes in some clear and concise form. These notes, containing the pith of the subject, form, according to the method adopted, a *Précis* or Index of the whole.

It may be further remarked that much of what we all read is really a *précis*. Any text-book of history is in itself a *précis* from various “standard authorities” on the subject, with, of course, the writer’s comments thereon; an elementary text-book of science is, in the main, a *précis* of the original writings of great scientists. The reports of speeches which appear in the papers are generally a condensation of what was said; it is part of the business of a reporter to be able to pick out the salient points and state them effectively.

351. USE AS AN EXERCISE—It is not, however, only from the point of view of commercial utility that these subjects are of importance. They also furnish a valuable exercise both in the use of English and in the logical training of the mind. Though not requiring the depth or originality of thought necessary for an essay—since the material is in this case supplied—they nevertheless supplement and strengthen original composition. Practice in these exercises entails much judgment in the arrangement and condensation of prolix and unordered material.

The success of much of our work throughout life will depend on our ability to discriminate what is essential from what is subsidiary. And the well-known dictum that “time is money” is especially applicable to examinations; the art of stating our case in the most complete and yet briefest manner possible is of the highest importance in the examination-room and elsewhere.

352. INDEX, PRÉCIS AND SUMMARY—Having thus reviewed the subject in general terms, we must now pass on to the consideration of each of these processes separately, and explain the special technical rules which govern the formation of each.

An Index—also called an Abstract, Docket, or Schedule—is an arrangement of the essential parts of a letter or document in tabular form under various headings, in such a way that it may be intelligible at a glance. Various methods are employed according to the nature of the subject treated or the use to be made of it. An index of a book, for instance, might consist of the heading of each chapter, followed by the heading of each paragraph in that chapter.

A Précis is a condensed narrative, in the form of an essay, of a document or a series of documents bearing on the same subject. The précis of a book would be a short account of the book containing its main points.

A Summary. This term is loosely used to denote, generally, a compilation which comes half-way between an index and a précis. A summary of a book might consist of the headings of the different chapters, each followed by a brief account or précis of the chapter. Sometimes, however, the term *summary* is used as an equivalent of *précis*.

We shall deal first of all with the Index; many of the general principles given will apply equally well to the Précis and the Summary.

353. KINDS OF INDEX—An index may, as has been said, be constructed on various principles; the nature of the subject is usually a sufficient guide as to what form it should take. In some examinations a specimen index is given.

The following examples of index cover the main ground:—

(1) **Alphabetical Index.** This is the commonest form of all; it consists of the names of the main points of a book, arranged in alphabetical order, and followed in each case by a list of the chief items under each with the page or paragraph in a form suitable for reference to the text. The index at the end of this book is an example of this nature.

(2) **Table of Contents.** This is an index arranged in the order of treatment, and is usually placed at the beginning of a book. The headings of each chapter of the Bible or the syllabus of a course of lectures are examples.

(3) **Business Index.** In business firms it is customary to index letters on the day they are received, noting briefly their purport

and that of the reply (if any) which has been sent. This is often done in a "Letter-book" which is ruled in columns, the exact form varying in different firms. The following is an example of a commonly adopted method :—

No.	Date sent.	Date rec.	Name of writer.	Address of same.	Matter.	How dealt with.
274	17/7/05	18/7/05	G. H. Smith	17 Cranfield Gardens, S.W.	Ordering 10 tons of coal.	Order executed.
275	15/7/05	18/7/05	J. H. Franken	2 Wilhelmstrasse, Leipsic.	Asking prices of coal.	Price list and letter sent.

(4) Official Index, used in public or government departments for important correspondence, such as that taking place between government officials in this country and officials of a foreign country. This class of indexing is a good mental exercise, and needs practice; it is the type of indexing generally required in examinations. We shall therefore deal with it more fully.

354. OFFICIAL INDEX—The following specimen of the index of a set of correspondence concerning the Jameson Raid shows the method adopted :—

No.	Place and Date	Names of Correspondents	Subject-Matter
1	Pretoria, 6 Jan. 1896	Sir H. Robinson to Mr Chamberlain	Announcing that affairs are in a critical state, that Transvaal demands immediate disarmament of Johannesburg, and that Johannesburg will agree if safety of Jameson is assured.
2	London, 6 Jan. 1896	Mr Chamberlain to Sir H. Robinson	Expressing hope that no rash step will be taken by the President of the Transvaal against Johannesburg people as they have committed no overt act of hostility.
3	Pretoria, 7 Jan. 1896	Sir H. Robinson to Mr Chamberlain	Stating that he has interviewed President and Council of Transvaal who insisted on disarmament, and required answer in 24 hours as 8000 burghers were collected and could not remain indefinitely.

355. NOTES ON THE ABOVE—In the above specimen there are four columns :—

The **first** simply indicates the number marked, for convenience of reference, on the given letter.

The **second** gives the name of the place from which the letter was sent, and its date. It is advisable for clearness that the date should be written as above—6 Jan. 1896—rather than Jan. 6, 1896.

The **third** tells us the names of the correspondents, Sir H. Robinson and Mr Chamberlain, *or* their official designations, “The High Commissioner” and “The Colonial Secretary.” But whatever style is adopted must be preserved through the whole series; the same person must not be referred to in one place as “Mr Chamberlain,” and in another as “The Colonial Secretary.”

The **fourth** is the *real* index, containing the subject-matter of each letter or telegram. It should occupy nearly half the width of the page. The Verb introducing the subject-matter may be either in the Present Participle as above (*announcing, expressing, stating*), or in the Present Tense (*announces, expresses, states*); but here again, whichever is chosen must be consistently employed throughout; not *announcing* for one letter, and *expresses* for another.

The Verb employed should be varied as far as possible, and should be appropriate to the subject-matter. The following are some of the most suitable: Acknowledging, advising, announcing, approving, containing, demanding, explaining, expressing, informing, recommending, stating, submitting, suggesting, transmitting.

356. THE QUALITIES OF AN INDEX—The essential features of the index should be proportion, uniformity, brevity, clearness and elegance :—

(a) **Proportion.** In order that a due appreciation of the relative importance of the various letters should be obtained, the whole series should be rapidly perused, and a brief note of the contents of each letter should be jotted down before the indexing is begun. Some letters merely acknowledge the receipt of other letters, or

return thanks for some permission granted ; these can be dismissed very briefly. Perhaps one or two of the letters contain the real essence of the whole correspondence ; these will be treated most fully.

(b) **Uniformity.** Consistency in the manner of treatment of all the columns should be observed (see § 355).

(c) **Brevity.** The art of indexing consists largely in the ability to express the greatest amount in the smallest space. Hence it is important to pick out the salient points of a letter, and omit all subsidiary information. But it is very important that no *essentials* should be omitted ; many students in their anxiety to be brief omit much that is important, and their index is consequently bare or even unintelligible.

The diction and style of the index should be as brief as possible—free from all verbiage ; the index of a letter can generally be put into one sentence. A long letter will in general require more space than a short one, though of course relative importance is a determining factor.

The index should seldom exceed 8 half-lines, and should, as a rule, be confined to 5 half-lines (foolscap size).

(d) **Clearness** must not be sacrificed to brevity. Ambiguity should at all costs be avoided ; the language employed should be the plainest possible English ; figurative language, exaggeration, and excess of Adjectives should be carefully eliminated.

(e) **Elegance.** The writing and arrangement of the index should be neat ; and the diction should be as free and pleasing to the ear as possible. The rules given for composition are equally applicable here.

NOTE.—The instructions given at Civil Service Examinations in indexing are worth quoting :—

“ The Index should deal separately with every letter or document whether covering or enclosed. It should contain the date of each letter or document ; the name of the persons by whom and to whom it is written, and *in as few words as possible*, the subject of it. The merits of such an index are (a) to give the really important point or points of each letter or document, omitting everything else ; (b) to do this briefly, distinctly, and in such a form as readily to catch the eye.”

357. We append specimens of indexing of the letters given in

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Chapter xxvii. Examples of indexing of official letters may be more conveniently treated, together with the précis of a series of such letters in the next chapter.

No.	Place and Date	Names of Correspondents	Subject-Matter
Private §343	Bristol 17 May 1906	James Allen to George [Bates]	Thanking him for his letter, hoping that he has been successful at an examination, and describing a trip to Lynmouth.
§ 345 1	Plumstead 7 Oct. 1906	J. G. Jones to L. J. Smith	Applying for position as Junior Clerk, and stating qualifications.
§ 345 2	Eltham 6 Sept. 1906	A. B. Sopes to Manager of Messrs Johns & Son	Ordering 10 Tons Wallsend and 5 tons Kitchen Coal.
§ 345 3	Woolwich 7 Sept. 1906	Messrs Johns & Son to A. B. Sopes	Acknowledging order and stating that Wallsend Coal is 2s, dearer.
§ 345 4	Eltham 8 Sept. 1906	A. B. Sopes to Manager of Messrs Johns & Son	Confirming order at new price.
§ 345 5	Eltham 14 Sept. 1906	Do. do.	Enclosing cheque for payment.

358. A PRÉCIS differs from an index mainly in *form*. The compilation of an index is to a great extent mechanical; after some practice it should need little mental effort. A précis, however, being of the nature of an essay, requires considerable skill in judgment and arrangement.

It has been said that précis-writing is only a matter of common sense, and there is much truth in the remark. Unfortunately, however, this "sense" is by no means naturally "common" to all of us; it needs educating and developing. Hence the need for rules and methods for a précis. When once the student knows

what he is about, there is no necessity for him to follow these rules too slavishly ; he will then be in a position to use his own methods. The variety of types of questions set in the Matriculation Examinations shows, indeed, that the object of the examiners is just to test whether the student really possesses this common sense—inherent or acquired.

359. KINDS OF PRÉCIS—As treated in examinations précis includes :—

- (1) Condensation of a passage from a standard author.
- (2) Summary of a passage in paragraphs under headings.
- (3) Formation of a (so-called) précis from a set of notes given.
- (4) Official Précis—The formation of a continuous narrative of the subject of a given series of letters or documents. As précis-writing of this nature entails long and involved illustrations, we shall postpone its consideration to the next chapter, dealing with the first three kinds at once.

360. CONDENSATION — The student who has carefully worked through the exercises on Condensation and Rearrangement of Sentences (Chap. xxii.) and on Reproduction (Chap. xxiii.) will be well equipped for an exercise of this nature.

Generally about a page of printed matter is given, of which a condensed account, giving the main ideas in a brief and intelligible form, is required. As a *general rule*, the précis of such a passage should be about one-fifth of the length of the original ; but it is not possible nor, indeed, advisable to keep exactly to this proportion, for while some material is prolix and requires to be ruthlessly cut down, other material may be already very terse and compact.

The remarks on proportion, uniformity, brevity, clearness, and elegance of an index (§ 355) are equally applicable to a précis ; and since the précis is of the form of an essay, the rules on Composition (Chap. xxiv.) need to be strictly observed.

Method Recommended. The passage given should be read through so that the general meaning may be grasped ; a second careful reading should then be made, during which sentences or phrases which seem to give the pith or essence of the whole may

be marked in pencil. Then brief notes of the main points should be made—a word or two about each will suffice—and these should, if necessary, be arranged in logical order and cut down to the minimum, all subsidiary points being eliminated. These notes will form a kind of outline or skeleton for the précis. From them a connected and intelligent account should then be written; the briefest modes of expression should be employed, and all flourishes or ornamental phrases avoided.

361. EXAMPLE—

ORIGINAL.

The effects of the incapacity shown by the popular leaders in all the great members of the Commonwealth are to be covered with the "all-atoning name" of liberty. In some people I see great liberty indeed; in many, if not in most, an oppressive, degrading servitude. But what is liberty without wisdom, and without virtue? It is the greatest of all possible evils; for it is folly, vice, and madness, without tuition or restraint. Those who know what virtuous liberty is, cannot bear to see it disgraced by incapable heads, on account of their having high-sounding words in their mouths. Grand, swelling sentiments of liberty, I am sure I do not despise. They warm the heart; they enlarge and liberalise our minds; they animate our courage in a time of conflict. Old as I am, I read the fine raptures of Lucan and Corneille with pleasure. Neither do I wholly condemn the little arts and devices of popularity. They facilitate the carrying of many points of moment; they keep the people together; they refresh the mind in its exertions; and they diffuse occasional gaiety over the severe brow of moral freedom. Every politician ought to sacrifice to the graces; and to join compliance with reason. But in such an undertaking as that in France, all these subsidiary sentiments and artifices are of little avail. To make a government requires no great prudence. Settle the seat of power; teach obedience, and the work is done. To give freedom is still more easy. It is not necessary to guide; it only requires to let go the rein. But to form a *free government*; that is, to temper together these opposite elements of liberty and restraint in one consistent work, requires much thought; deep reflection; a sagacious, powerful, and combining mind. This I do not find in those who take the lead in the National Assembly. Perhaps they are not so miserably deficient as they appear. I rather believe it. It would put them below the common level of human understanding. But when the leaders choose to make themselves bidders at an auction of popularity, their talents, in the construction of the state will be of no service. They will become flatterers instead of legislators; the instruments not the guides of the people. If any of them should happen to propose a scheme of liberty, soberly limited, and defined with proper qualifications, he will be immediately outbid by his competitors, who will produce something more splendidly popular. Suspicions will be raised of his fidelity to the cause. Moderation will be stigmatised as the virtue of cowards, and compromise as the prudence of traitors; until, in hopes of preserving the credit which may enable him to temper

and moderate on some occasions, the popular leader is obliged to become active in propagating doctrines, and establishing powers, that will afterwards defeat any sober purpose at which he ultimately might have aimed.

(BURKE—*Reflections on the French Revolution.*)

PRÉCIS

The errors of the popular leaders in France are said to be excused by "liberty." Liberty is admirable if tempered with wisdom and virtue; but without any restraint or guidance it becomes mere madness.

It is easy to create a government: it is still easier to give a nation freedom; but to form a free government—a combination of liberty and restraint—requires reflection, wisdom, and prudence. The French leaders do not appear to possess these qualities; they are bartering their talents for popularity, and will soon become the slaves rather than the guides of the people. The result will be that any moderate man will have to make promises which he will afterwards regret.

362. SUMMARY—The student is frequently asked to write a summary of a passage, arranging his condensation in paragraphs, each with an appropriate heading. The settlement of what the paragraphs shall be presents some difficulty. They should be short; each should, if possible, introduce some new portion or aspect of the subject (see §§ 286-294). Sometimes the paragraphing is given in the question.

Having decided (when requisite) what the divisions are to be, the next step is to find names for them, or, in other words, to obtain a suitable heading for each paragraph. These should be appropriate and brief: as a rule they should not exceed one line in length. As the value of the summary will depend largely on this arrangement into paragraphs and on the clearness of the headings, great care should be bestowed on this part of the exercise.

There only remains then to write a précis under each heading according to the methods of § 360.

363. EXAMPLE—

ORIGINAL.

Among all the states of Europe in the sixteenth century, England stood pre-eminent in greatness and importance. While the political influence of other nations had at the close of this period more or less

declined, the vigorous and successful policy of Elizabeth had infused new life and energy into the English people. The continual wars with France, and the long civil dissensions of the Roses, had broken the feudal powers of the Barons, and established the authority of the sovereign and thereby given a new shape to the political relation of government and people. The accession of Henry VIII. to the cause of the Reformation occasioned a mighty movement in religious and ecclesiastical life. The participation in this movement at first degenerated, no doubt, but too often into partisanship and vindictive persecution; nevertheless, the sound and vigorous seed, once sown, however its growth might be for a time retarded, could never be destroyed, and it eventually produced the fairest flowers and fruits. Thus the persecutions of Mary did but stimulate the Reformers to greater exertions, and strengthened, rather than weakened, their cause; while, under the fostering reign of Elizabeth, it again raised its head, and put down all opposition. The English Episcopal Church furnished from the first a happy mean between the extremes of Romanism and Puritanism. While the former wished to abide by whatever was old, and the Puritans longed for novelty in all things, and with a blind fanaticism desiring on the one hand to separate the Church and state, and on the other to destroy all liberty in customs, science, and art—the Episcopal Church adopted all necessary changes, but at the same time retained the ancient wherever it was practicable. The mingled rigour and mildness of Elizabeth and Burleigh—employed almost invariably with the greatest judgment and propriety—held the extreme parties in control without impeding the new course of things. The successful wars of this reign in France and the Netherlands, in defence of the reformed faith, the conquests in the West Indies, new discoveries in remote quarters of the globe, the firmer establishment of the English dominion in Ireland, the acquisition of a lasting political influence in Scotland, and especially the great victory over Spain, were events which contributed to stimulate the energies of the people, to direct its views to greater enterprises, and to awaken and confirm a consciousness of its political importance. (ULRICI—*Shakspeare.*)

(1) **Title.** First of all, the main subject of the passage must be discovered. Briefly put, this appears to be: England's greatness in the sixteenth century.

(2) **Subdivisions.** A careful study of the passage will show us that it may be divided into three paragraphs:—

(a) To "government and people." This deals with England's political life and the causes which led to the new relation between sovereign and people.

(b) From "The accession of Henry VIII." to "was practicable." This describes the Reformation and its results.

(c) From "The mingled rigour" to the end. This describes England's triumphs abroad, which raised her to a high position among the nations.

NOTE.—The first sentence of paragraph (c) might be included with (b); it really forms a connecting link between the two.

We now proceed to the complete Summary of the passage.

SUMMARY

England's greatness in the Sixteenth Century.

(a) Change in England's political life :—

The French wars and the wars of the Roses had broken the power of the nobility, and although strengthening the sovereign, had made the bond between her and the nation closer.

(b) The Reformation :—

The support given by Henry VIII. and Elizabeth to the Reformation invigorated religious life, and persecution only strengthened the cause of reform. The Church of England furnished a happy mean between the extremes of Romanism and Puritanism.

(c) Successes abroad :—

Discoveries and conquests in the new world, the subjugation of Ireland and influence over Scotland, the successful Protestant wars in France and the Netherlands, and most especially the Armada, raised English prestige and stirred the patriotism of the people.

364. PRÉCIS FROM NOTES—A type of exercise sometimes set is the formation of a so-called *précis* from a set of notes given. This exercise is, strictly speaking, not on *précis* writing or *condensation* at all; it is rather on *expansion*. Such notes as were made by the student in the course of his condensation (§ 360) are in this case furnished as material, and a continuous narrative has to be formed. The student who has practised expansion from outlines (Chapter xxiii.) should find no difficulty in an exercise of this nature. Only, he should always bear in mind that he is writing a *précis*, and should therefore be as concise as possible.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVIII.

1. Make an alphabetical index of this chapter.
2. Make an official index of all the letters written by you in accordance with the examples at the end of the last chapter.
3. Distinguish between Index, Précis and Summary and mention the chief qualities common to all three.
4. Write a concise summary of Chapter i. arranging the matter in about six sections under suitable headings.
5. Make an index, consisting of principal and subsidiary headings in the order of treatment, of Chapter vi. (Verbs).
6. Write a précis of Chapter xxx. (Figures of Speech).
7. Write a précis of the transaction in letters written for question 3 of Chapter xxvii.
8. Make a précis of the leading article of a daily paper.
9. Write a Summary of the following passage, dividing the matter into three or four paragraphs with suitable headings :—

THE COLOSSEUM

Of all the cities of remote celebrity whose names have been perpetuated by history, for literature, for arts and arms, for virtue and for depravity, there is none which abounds in so many beautiful and sublime architectural evidences of former greatness as Rome. On its present comparatively small site, it has remains of almost every useful or ornamental structure. The spectator of reflection, feeling, and taste, inhales an almost breathless surprise, amidst its once useful aqueducts, triumphal arches, pleasure-crowded theatres—its temples, pillars, pavements, health-giving baths, and “gorgeous palaces.” Of these none perhaps are so creative of pleasure to the imagination or of moral reflection as the Amphitheatre begun by Vespasian and finished by Titus in the first century, and called by the Romans the Flavian, or Vespasian’s Amphitheatre, and by the modern Italians, Colisei, from its vastness. It was erected from the materials of Nero’s “golden palace,” an object prodigious and splendid, but of disgust to the Roman people, and therefore destroyed by Vespasian. The awe with which we view its immense oval length and height is tempered by the varied beauty of the whole and its particular parts, by the graceful orders rising on each other, with Corinthian pilasters and an attic, by the numerous arcaded statues, windows and steps. We feel the profound silence and solitary aspect of its numerous and untrodden ambulatories, its immense and desert arena, where myriads of unfortunate captives and slaves, and of martyrs to an unshaken faith, have for many successive centuries amused the thousands of spectators who occupied the surrounding seats, and filled with horrid shouts the reverberating walls during the intervals of the groans of the dying gladiator, or the cries of wounded and ferocious animals. This great and sanguinary portal to the next world, this honour and disgrace of Rome, this theatre of cruel and vulgar joy, of anguish, of terror, of wasted courage and despair, this defaced but still legible epitaph of great and guilty Rome, stands in its immensity and decay, and has come out of the conflict of ages and of nations like an aged and venerable veteran, who having himself survived dangers and witnessed innumerable deaths is mutilated and scarred—is

“Shattered with age and furrowed o’er with years.”

Had not the selfish aristocracy of Rome, in different times of the Popedom laid sacrilegious hands on this magnificent structure, its massive strength and solidity would have resisted the slower ravages of time in the dry and genial climate of Italy, so that it would have remained almost a perfect memorial of the public splendour of old Rome. It was in a state of such useful and excellent preservation even so late as the 13th century, about 1200 years after its erection, that it was used for the purpose of public games; but the Barbarini and other base patrician families, dilapidated it to build the Barbarini and Farnesian palaces, at once the ornament of modern Rome, and the monuments of the moral degeneracy of their respective builders. By exciting a mixture of spiritual and temporal dread, Benedict XIV. at last successfully interdicted these vandalisms. He planted the venerated emblem of the Christian faith, the cross, in the centre of the arena, and declared the Colosseum sacred to the numerous Christian martyrs who had perished there as devoted combatants with the wild beasts and the gladiators.

10. Write a very concise summary of the following passage, arranging the matter in sections under suitable headings :—

Scott and Shakspeare are the two poets of English history, standing out by themselves in strong relief, dealing each with a particular series of events starting from the same cause, a disputed succession to the crown, and both equally well adapted for poetic treatment.

Scott's execution of this labour of love is a masterpiece of art, and it is, we think, in these novels that posterity will recognise his greatest work. We do not mean to say that his best novels are to be found among the number, but that, regarded as the presentation of one long drama, complete within itself and capable of being detached from the rest of the series without injury to any part of it, they remain the most brilliant and enduring monument of his genius. Scott made this great story his own, and has stamped upon it the impress of his own mind in characters which will never fade. The house of Stewart, like one of the old royal houses of ancient Greece, seemed to lie under the curse of some avenging deity, with which the virtues of individuals, the gallantry and self-devotion of knights and gentlemen, contended in vain. Scott has worked up these elements into one great poem with skill and tact, with breadth of sympathy and warmth of imagination.

In glancing briefly at the general characteristics of these novels, we should prefer to take them in their historical order, beginning with "The Abbot" and ending with "Redgauntlet." The career of Mary strikes the keynote of the whole; and her embarkation on board the vessel which conveys her out of Scotland seems in a manner to foreshadow and to typify the embarkation of Charles Edward and Redgauntlet on board the vessel which was to carry them to France; the beginning and the end of an "auld sang." In the story of "The Abbot" Scott had perhaps a more difficult task to perform than in any of the Stewart series. What he himself thought about the Queen has long been the common property of all his admirers. He refused to write her Life because he did not like to tell what he thought the truth about it. Yet in the pages of "The Abbot" he is at little trouble to conceal it; though the manner of its revelation is one of the most wonderful monuments of Scott's literary skill which he has bequeathed to us. (M)

11. Summarise the contents of the following under a main, and under subordinate heads :—

The wide popularity which was so rapidly won by the Genevan Bible (1560) had two important results : it undermined the titular authority of the Great Bible (1539), which, beyond all doubt, was inferior to it as a translation ; and it forced Archbishop Parker into the endeavour to supersede it by a Bible whose excellence might deserve to be stamped with the hall-mark of Church and State. To have silently acquiesced in the free circulation of the Genevan Bible, side by side, not only with the Great Bible, but with Coverdale's and Matthew's Bibles, would have been to condone a medley of authorities that fell but little short of spiritual chaos. It must be borne in mind that our great Tudor Queen, whose sagacity was always alert to discern and recognise

The limits of resistance, and the bounds
Determining concession,

differed altogether from Henry the Eighth in her attitude, during the first period of her reign, towards the current English version of the Scriptures. Firmly opposed to whatever she considered dangerous to the cause of order, or to the supremacy of the crown, she saw no reason to interfere between one Bible and another. She would have no version "either abled or disabled." She would be the leader of no particular section of her subjects, but the Queen of England. Left to itself, it was inevitable that the Genevan should, on its own merits, dethrone the Great Bible ; yet it was plainly impossible for Convocation to erect the Puritan book into a standard version, or to obtain the Queen's authorisation of an annotated Bible so undisguisedly associated with the names of Calvin, whom she detested, and of Knox, whom she detested still more.

His own love of uniformity, if nothing else, would sooner or later have caused Parker to address himself to a task which, if there was to be any finality in the interpretation of, and the appeal to, Scripture, must inevitably be undertaken. Accordingly, about the year 1563-4, he set himself to organise a select revision committee, and inasmuch as the majority of them were taken from the Episcopal Bench, the version for which they were responsible became known to history as the Bishops' Bible (1568). (M)

12. (i) Make an Abstract of the following passage, indicating in a form suitable for a title or heading, (a) its general subject, (b) the particular subject of each paragraph.

(ii) Upon the lines of this Abstract write a précis, or account in brief, giving the substance of the passage without anything superfluous.

Grotius [1583-1645] gives in his account *De Jure Belli* a very definite statement as to the prevailing* sentiment. At the devastation of a province or the capture of a city, he thinks it right that children, women, old men, clergy, farmers, merchants and other non-combatants should be spared. He allows that tradition and sentiment are against him, but he claims to be speaking of the newer spirit. Speaking as a lawyer, bound by tradition, he has to admit the right of the victor to slay all prisoners taken in arms, but he thinks that if heathen they might be more wisely enslaved, and if Christian they ought to be only

* *Viz.*, respecting the treatment of a conquered people.

held to ransom. It was not till another century had gone by that the feeling of Europe was absolutely clear and definite about the matter, and that Montesquieu [1689-1755] was able to say without reserve that "slaughter of prisoners made after the heat of action is now condemned by every civilised nation."

If one wishes to see clearly how far the new sentiments had travelled, let him compare the civil war of Cavalier and Roundhead with the war of Stephen and Matilda five centuries before, or even with the Wars of the Roses half-way between. He will find an almost complete absence of the earlier ferocity. Men make war with grave regret; it is not the aim and object of life, but a sad necessity reluctantly complied with. Non-combatants are as little as possible molested, and property is rarely destroyed in wantonness or in malice.

On the Continent the progress was somewhat slower; still, it went forward; and Niebuhr says that the devastation of the Palatinate by the troops of Louis the Fourteenth was the last instance of the old practice whereby the houses, crops, and every kind of property throughout a fertile province were burnt, and the inhabitants turned out as homeless wanderers.

But, of course, the greatest contrast between the seventeenth century and the seventh is found in the growth of a huge civil population. Every man of the seventh century was trained to arms. He had to be so trained. It was his only chance of prospering, and thus it became his only pride. In the seventeenth century not one man in a dozen had been in any way trained to arms or taken part in warfare. Great bodies of men had learnt to live in absolute peacefulness among themselves; and this alone was a clear mark of a huge alteration in warlike sentiments effected in the intervening thousand years.

Now make the final transition to the England of our own time. For two and a half centuries her soil has been practically free from war; for a century and a half it has been absolutely free from it. Scotland and Ireland have been very nearly as long undisturbed by conflicts. It now appears that forty millions of people can live at absolute peace among themselves in a land where, ten centuries ago, our ancestors of the Heptarchy spent their whole lives in fighting each other, till, as Milton says in his history of those unlovely times, the tangle of feuds and wars, murders and devastations, became too sickening to be recorded. If we contrast the present habit of going unarmed and never dreaming of the need of arms, with the dire necessity of those days, when his weapons were a man's constant companions, we can see how far the race has travelled on the road to peace. So, if we wish to see how far it has travelled on the way to humanity, think with what gusto our ancestors slew the wounded on the field of battle, and then consider how the army-surgeon—an invention of the last two centuries—cares for the wounded of the enemy, with almost as much solicitude as for his own. (M)

13. Indicate, after the style of a table of contents, the *chief* points touched upon in each paragraph of the following description, and give a brief summary of the whole:—

It is not our intention to attempt anything like a complete examination of the poetry of Milton. The public has long been agreed as to the merit of the most remarkable passages, the incomparable harmony of the numbers, and the excellence of that style, which no rival has been

able to equal, and no parodist to degrade, which displays in their highest perfection the idiomatic powers of the English tongue, and to which every ancient and every modern language has contributed something of grace, of energy, or of music. In the vast field of criticism on which we are entering, innumerable reapers have already put their sickles. Yet the harvest is so abundant that the negligent search of a straggling gleaner may be rewarded with a sheaf.

The most striking characteristic of the poetry of Milton is the extreme remoteness of the associations by means of which it acts on the reader. Its effect is produced, not so much by what it expresses, as by what it suggests; not so much by the ideas which it directly conveys, as by other ideas which are connected with them. He electrifies the mind through conductors. The most unimaginative man must understand the *Iliad*. Homer gives him no choice, and requires from him no exertion, but takes the whole upon himself, and sets the images in so clear a light, that it is impossible to be blind to them. The works of Milton cannot be comprehended or enjoyed, unless the mind of the reader co-operate with that of the writer. He does not paint a finished picture, or play for a mere passive listener. He sketches, and leaves others to fill up the outline. He strikes the keynote, and expects his hearer to make out the melody.

We often hear of the magical influence of poetry. The expression in general means nothing: but, applied to the writings of Milton, it is most appropriate. His poetry acts like an incantation. Its merit lies less in its obvious meaning than in its occult power. There would seem, at first sight, to be no more in his words than in other words. But they are words of enchantment. No sooner are they pronounced, than the past is present, and the distant near. New forms of beauty start at once into existence, and all the burial-places of the memory give up their dead. Change the structure of the sentence; substitute one synonyme for another, and the whole effect is destroyed. The spell loses its power; and he who should then hope to conjure with it would find himself as much mistaken as Cassim in the Arabian tale, when he stood crying, "Open Wheat," "Open Barley," to the door which obeyed no sound but "Open Sesame." (MACAULAY.)

14. (i) State (*a*) the main purport of the following passage under one title or heading; and (*b*) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.

(ii) Write a *précis* of the passage, giving the substance of it, without anything superfluous.

The impulse given to the study of Greek by exiles during the half century preceding the conquest of Constantinople, and by the enthusiasm of a series of scholars from Petrarch and Boccaccio down to 1453, was greatly stimulated by the increase of fugitives consequent on the capture of the city.

The arrival of numbers of scholars in Italy shortly before and shortly after 1453 is contemporaneous with the full spring-time of the great revival of learning. A series of remarkable efforts had been made to restore ancient Roman and Greek glory as seen in literature and architecture. Learning was regarded as a new and improved example. The learning of the ancients was compared with the ignorance of the Churchmen. The new movement marked a great reaction and went

to unjustifiable extremes. Some of the advocates for classical influence went to the extent of discarding Christian in favour of Pagan morality. . . . Paganism, because it was contemporaneous with the classical period, invaded the Church itself. All the architecture, art, and literature of Christianity was bad except in so far as it approximated to Pagan models. . . . The careful study of the Latin classics, the marvellous development of painting, architecture, and sculpture, but, above all, the keen interest felt in the newly developed study of Greek, were all to produce wonderful fruit within a generation after 1453, and to culminate in Italy in an age of singular intellectual brilliancy.

The study of Greek, at first almost confined to Florence, gradually spreads over the whole of the peninsula, and finally passed north of the Alps into Germany, where it was taken up with great earnestness. . . . In 1485 a Greek professor was appointed in Paris, and one in Rome. In the reign of Henry the Seventh, Oxford consented to receive Grocyn and Linacre as teachers of Greek.

The movement known as "The Revival of Learning" was accomplished before the end of the fifteenth century, and all investigators are agreed that it had been very largely contributed to by Greek exiles during the half century preceding and following the Moslem conquest.

Its paganisation of Christianity proved temporary. But the critical examination of the text of the Greek New Testament had more durable results. It called attention to the contents of a book which had hitherto been taken as outside controversy. When the study of Greek passed north of the Alps, the examination of the sacred writings was no longer in the hands of *dilettanti* who looked upon the text with the contempt of scholars disposed to accept Paganism as the complement of a higher form of civilisation, and who had no patience with what they regarded as trivialities, but in those of religious and earnest German students, with results, in Erasmus, Luther, Melanchthon, Calvin, and others the end of which is not yet visible.

While it is beyond doubt that the dispersion of students from Constantinople aided the intellectual movement in Western Europe, there is no ground for the belief that, if the city had not been captured, Greek influence would not have made itself felt in the Renaissance. The dispersion hastened the development of a movement which had already begun, awakened a spirit of inquiry, and conducted scholars into new fields of thought earlier than they would have arrived if not thus aided. In this sense, and to this extent, it may be claimed as a beneficial result of the capture of Constantinople.

[PEARS—*Destruction of the Greek Empire.*] (M)

15. Write a brief heading for each paragraph of the following, and then write a *précis* of the whole :—

The cloud has burst, and for the moment, I think, has been dispelled in Warsaw. But the atmosphere is still lowering. Evidences of the storm are seen on every side in the broken shop windows and smashed street appointments, and the military pickets stationed at every corner.

As was naturally to be expected, the temper of the malcontents took a different form from that of the St Petersburg strikers. Ever since the outbreak of the war there has been depression in the trade of these manufacturing districts, and much wider distress owing to the drafting of the Polish battalions eastward.

When once St Petersburg had given the cue, the Polish Socialist Society set their prepared machinery in order. Their industrial works on strike gave the masses, and the Socialists supplied leaders. For days before the demonstration reached its climax bodies of the worst type of malcontents concentrated on Warsaw.

From the lethargy of the police, it almost looks as if the authorities encouraged the gatherings, for the purpose of putting into force their own drastic measures of suppression. Yet, in spite of the fact that the strikers were leavened with armed Socialists bent on disorder, even to the point of attacking isolated Cossack patrols, the results have not been as sanguinary as they were with the peaceful masses of St Petersburg.

On Saturday, Sunday, and Monday all unlawful assemblies were put down ruthlessly. After dark two persons sufficed to make an assembly unlawful. Three bugle calls were sounded to give the strikers warning: then rifle and sabre did their work, with the result that 200 persons were killed and about 600 wounded. This for the time has quieted the disorder. To-day is a religious festival, and to-morrow the workmen will return. *(The Times.)*

16. Form a suitable title for the following passage and a heading for each paragraph, and write a précis of the whole:—

In a statute of Richard II. we first find mention of the impotent poor, who are directed to remain and abide in certain places; but no provision is made for their maintenance. Indeed, during the Roman Catholic times, begging was allowed on the part of the impotent poor. Thus even as late as 1530 a statute which inflicts severe punishment on sturdy vagabonds and valiant beggars, allows the aged and impotent poor to beg and live off alms, provided they confined themselves to certain districts.

The first act for the relief of the impotent poor was passed in 1536, by which collections were ordered to be made in the parishes for their support. But by the same statute incorrigible vagrancy is, on a third conviction, made felony, with the penalty of death. The dissolution of the religious houses in the reign had the effect both of increasing the number of vagabonds and beggars and of diminishing their means of support.

As length, in 1601, compulsory assessment for the relief of the poor was fully established; and the statute then passed was till recent times the text-book of English poor-law. The overseers of each parish were directed to raise by taxation the necessary sums "for providing a sufficient stock of flax, hemp, wool and other ware or stuff, to set the poor on work, and also competent sums for relief of lame, blind, old and impotent persons, and for putting out children as apprentices."

Workhouses were first established in 1722. They were not initially intended so much as a refuge for the poor, or as a test by which real destitution might be discerned, but, as their name implies, with a view to derive profit from the labours of the poor. The workhouses were in fact a kind of manufactories carried on at the risk of the poor-rate; and though they at first diminished the cost of relief, they ultimately increased it, by pauperising the independent labourer.

By the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834 all bodies charged with the relief of the poor were placed under the control of a central board

of three commissioners, who were to make rules and regulations binding upon the local boards. One important power given to them was that of uniting several parishes for the purpose of a more economical administration. The Poor Law Commissioners have now been superseded by the Local Government Board, with a president who is a member of the government.

(From HUME—*History of England.*)

17. Write a précis of the following :—

In its origin the war was inevitable, and unconfused by secondary issues. Briefly stated, the causes which led to the struggle were as follows: Japan, baulked by the action of the European Powers of the fruits of her victory in the war with China, found herself as a result of it—except so far as the acquisition of Formosa was of some potential benefit to her—in a position of dangerous isolation. Worse than this, she found, as a consequence of her own victories, that Korea and Manchuria, both of which were regarded by Japan as lying within her legitimate sphere of interest, if not of influence, were, if anything, less within her control than before the war. Both province and kingdom were now persistently encroached upon by the Government of the Tsar. This immediate effect of the weakening of China was by no means what Japan had expected or desired, and Japan saw herself yearly more and more threatened by the spread of the vast Empire which had already swallowed one of the territories of the island Empire—Saghalien. The acquisition of Port Arthur by Russia was the last straw which broke down the patience and long-suffering of the Mikado. It soon became obvious that this tardy attainment of a warm-water port was the inauguration of a policy of extension on the part of Russia which aimed at nothing less than the ultimate absorption of Manchuria, Korea, and Mongolia. What gave the Mikado's Government cause for even more serious disquiet was that in the opinion of those in the Far East best qualified to judge, this expansion would not have checked its growth before Japan itself had fallen within the ever-growing frontiers of the Muscovite. The next step taken by the Russians was the construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway. This railway, which is nominally the property of a private company—the Russo-Chinese Bank—connects at Manchuria Junction on the frontier with the Siberian Railway, and divides at Harbin into two branches, one leading to Vladivostok, the other to Port Arthur and the neighbouring civil port and town of Dalny. It is not necessary to dilate here upon the terms of the construction of this line. It is sufficient to remember that for a minimum space of eighty years the railway was to be entirely controlled, protected, and worked by Russians, and that the only opportunity given to China of ever regaining possession of it at any cost was of an illusory description. The Russians were in possession of the only means of communication in Manchuria, and the officials of the Russo-Chinese Bank made no secret to the present writer of the ultimate intention of Russia to keep both line and province in her power.

It was clear that any such permanent occupation of Manchuria and extension of Russian interests in Korea would have been fatal to any real independence, and probably to the existence of the Island Empire. It was, therefore, without surprise that European capitals received the news, that strong and reiterated protests in St Petersburg were being made by the Japanese.

(*Daily Telegraph.*)

CHAPTER XXIX

ADVANCED PRÉCIS

365. **OFFICIAL PRÉCIS**—A number of letters or documents are presented to us, and from these we are required to construct a short narrative account of the events with which they deal. This kind of précis is of a far more difficult nature than those considered in the previous chapter. To begin with, there is often as much as twenty pages of printed matter to read through and master; consequently a great amount of concentration of mind is necessary in order that the essential features of all this matter may be grasped and retained as we go on. Further, the matter does not always follow on in logical order; it is sometimes difficult at first to see the connection between one document and the next. And when the matter is once understood, the task of condensing such an amount in the small space of a page or two, and of fixing on what points to emphasise, what merely to mention, and what to eliminate altogether requires much thought and judgment. We cannot do better than quote, as in the case of the Official Index, the excellent advice given in Civil Service Examinations:—

“The object of the précis (which should be drawn up, *not letter by letter*, but in the form of a narrative) is that anyone who had not time to read the original correspondence might, by reading the précis, be put in possession of all the leading features of what passed. The merits of such a précis (which should not exceed two pages in length) are (*a*) to contain all that is important in the correspondence; (*b*) to present this in a consecutive and readable shape, expressed as distinctly as possible, and as briefly as is compatible with distinctness.”

366. **METHOD RECOMMENDED**—Experience in précis-

writing shows that the following method, though apparently long and tedious, is the best for the student to adopt, at any rate until he has had some practice :—

(1) The whole correspondence should be read through *rapidly*. If it is of any considerable length, a *brief note* of the purport of each letter should be made as it is read : a line, sometimes a couple of words is sufficient. By this process a good idea of the main pith of the whole correspondence will be obtained.

(2) The original should now be read *slowly and carefully*, additions being made to the notes ; and any letter or portion of a letter which seems to deal with essentials may be marked for future reference. The notes should now present an outline containing, doubtless, much that is superfluous ; they should be revised, anything irrelevant or unimportant being deleted.

(3) From the revised notes and from memory of what has been read—reference being made where necessary—a *rough copy* of the *précis* should be made. This should be an account in the student's own language of what took place ; it should be of somewhat greater length than the final *précis* is intended to be : it should err in containing too much rather than too little, otherwise some valuable point may be lost.

(4) The rough copy should now be revised in an impartial and critical spirit. The student should always have the title of the correspondence before his eyes, and use it as a kind of text towards the exemplification of which the whole *précis* should tend. Sentences should be cut down or combined ; some should be crossed out altogether.

(5) Lastly, the *final précis* should be written. Due regard should be paid to grammar and punctuation.

NOTE.—After some amount of practice, *but only after that*, the student will find that he may omit stages (3) and (4) above. That is, after reading the correspondence and making notes as described in (1) and (2), the experienced student may write his *précis* forthwith. But the beginner is cautioned not to attempt to do this too soon. In nothing is it easier to deceive oneself than in *précis*-writing. If an attempt is made by the unskilled to cut the process short, the result will inevitably be that a merely

superficial knowledge of the contents of the correspondence will be obtained, and the vagueness of the précis written will clearly show that the heart of the matter has never been reached at all, or that essential features are lacking. Speed is of importance in précis-writing—but it must come later.

367. BOTH INDEX AND PRÉCIS—If an index and a précis are both required, the labour is considerably shortened. The index should be constructed first, as described in the last chapter, and this will practically serve the purpose of the outline.

Then whatever has been found in the original correspondence to be of importance should be read again, and the rough copy (or, in the case of experienced students, the final précis) may be at once attempted.

368. THE QUALITIES OF A PRÉCIS—To the general rules given in the last chapter, and in particular to those of § 356, the following may be added as especially appropriate to the précis :—

(a) **Perspective.** The précis-writer must endeavour to view the events narrated from a distance, in fact, as a historian views his subject. An event which might have appeared to the writer of one of the letters as of supreme importance, will to the précis-writer assume its proper significance, which may be very subsidiary. Unlike the historian, however, the précis-writer must not add any original comments.

(b) **Continuity.** As the events of which the correspondence tells may be spread over a considerable period, many minor changes will appear which should be eliminated in the précis. For instance, the Colonial Secretary may, at the time with which the earlier letters are concerned, be Mr Chamberlain; in later letters the name of Mr Lyttelton or Lord Elgin may appear as holding that office. This difference need not be shown in the précis; the term "Colonial Secretary" should appear in all cases.

(c) **Conciseness.** The length of the précis will, of course, vary according to the length of the original and to the nature of the subject and the terseness or prolixity of its treatment.

Provided always that nothing of importance is omitted, the shorter it is the better. A safe rule is that, for correspondence of six printed pages or more, the *précis* should not exceed one-tenth of the original, and to contain everything can rarely be *less* than one-twentieth of the same; for shorter originals than this, the length must generally exceed even the higher limit.

The student should always take the view that he has *only* a certain number of words to dispose of—in a *précis* of 10 pages say 300 words. If the *précis*, therefore, is to be really good, these 300 words must be chosen carefully. Much space may be saved, and a corresponding improvement in the *précis* obtained, if it is clearly remembered that it is *only* the vital things which are of supreme importance. For example, suppose a letter states that John Smith has written such-and-such to the consul, and that James Brown told him so-and-so, and that other persons named confirmed their statements and added further information, no names need appear at all in the *précis*. All that should be said is that “the consul, on enquiry, found that such-and-such had occurred.”

369. EXAMPLE of a set of official correspondence, and of the formation of an **Index** and **Précis** of the same.

CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO A PROPOSED COLONIAL CONFERENCE.

No. 1.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Governor Sir Wm. MacGregor to Mr Lyttelton.

SIR, Government House,
St John's, November 18, 1905.
With reference to your despatch of 16th October, I have the honour to inform you that my Ministers agree in principle to the institution of the contemplated Joint Commission.

I have, &c.,
WM. MACGREGOR.

No. 2.

CANADA.

Governor-General Earl Grey to Mr Lyttelton.

(December 5, 1905. Telegram.)

Referring to your telegram of 29th November, Responsible Ministers have no objection to Colonial Conference being held in 1907 instead of 1906.

No. 3.
NATAL.

Governor Sir H. E. McCallum to the Earl of Elgin.
(December 22, 1905. Telegram.)

Referring to your telegram 29th November, Ministers are agreeable to postponement of next Colonial Conference until 1907.

No. 4.
CAPE COLONY.

Governor Sir W. F. Hely-Hutchinson to Mr Lyttelton.
(Received December 23, 1905.)

SIR, Government House,
Cape Town, December 6, 1905.

I have the honour to transmit to you the document specified in the annexed schedule.

I have, &c.,
WALTER HELY-HUTCHINSON.

Enclosure in No. 4.
Ministers to Governor.

(Minute.) Prime Minister's Office,
Cape Town, December 6, 1905.

In acknowledging the receipt of His Excellency the Governor's minute of the 30th ultimo, transmitting a copy of a telegram from the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies, dated the 29th idem, relative to the date of meeting of the next Colonial Conference, Ministers have the honour to state in reply that they are desirous that the Conference should meet in the year 1906, due consideration being given, however, to the wishes and necessities of the various Colonial Governments in regard to the actual date of assembly.

T. W. SMARTT.

No. 5.
AUSTRALIA.

Governor-General Lord Northcote to the Earl of Elgin.
(December 23, 1905. Telegram.)

Referring to your telegram of 29th November, Colonial Conference, Government have no objection to postponement, 1907.

No. 6.
NEWFOUNDLAND.

Governor Sir Wm. MacGregor to Mr Lyttelton.
(Received December 28, 1905.)

Government House,
St John's, December 8, 1905.

SIR, With reference to your telegram of the 29th November, I have the honour to inform you that my Ministers are of opinion that it would be advisable to postpone the meeting of the Colonial Conference till 1907.

I have, &c.,
WM. MACGREGOR.

No. 7.

NEW ZEALAND.

Governor Lord Plunket to the Earl of Elgin.

(January 26, 1906. Telegram.)

Following telegram received from Premier :—

Begins :—Government of New Zealand see no objection to postponement of Imperial Conference of Prime Ministers until 1907, but would prefer that it should be held at an early date in that year.

No. 8.

The Earl of Elgin to the Governors of Self-governing Colonies.

(February 19, 1906. Telegram.)

Referring to my predecessor's telegram of 29th November, and to your reply, His Majesty's Government propose that Colonial Conference should meet early in March 1907, as it seems impossible to arrange a meeting conveniently this year. I shall be glad to learn that this date will suit your Prime Minister. Despatch follows by mail.

No. 9.

The Earl of Elgin to the Governors of Self-Governing Colonies.

MY LORD,

SIR,

Downing Street, February 22, 1906.

My predecessor, in his telegram of the 29th of November last, suggested that it might be advisable to postpone the Colonial Conference until the year 1907, since it was not possible for the Prime Ministers of the Australian Commonwealth and of New Zealand to attend a Conference in 1906 if it was held later than in the spring, and it did not then appear to be practicable to make preparation for a Conference by that time.

2. I have now the honour to enclose, for the information of your Ministers, copies of the replies received from the several Colonies, from which it will be seen that while the Cape Ministers desired that the Conference should meet this year, the other Governments agreed to postponement until next year, and the Government of New Zealand expressed a hope that the meeting might take place early in the year.

3. I accordingly informed you, in my telegram of the 19th instant, that His Majesty's Government proposed that the Conference should meet early in March 1907, and added that I should be glad to learn if that date would be convenient to your Prime Minister.

4. My predecessor communicated to your Government, in his despatch of 7th December last, the Parliamentary Paper [Cd. 2785] containing the correspondence with various Colonial Governments arising out of his despatch of 20th April, which dealt with certain proposals respecting the organisation of future Colonial Conferences. I do not feel myself called upon to adopt the recommendation of those proposals; but in view of the expressions of opinion received from the Colonies I think that it will be desirable that the scheme should be freely discussed when the Conference meets.

5. It will much facilitate the proceedings of the Conference by enabling full preparation to be made beforehand, if your Government will communicate to me, so as to reach me not later than the 1st of September next, a statement as to any subjects which they desire to be discussed, and as to any resolutions which they wish to submit to the Conference.

6. I will address you in due course as regards the subjects which His Majesty's Government may wish to bring before the Conference.

7. His Majesty's Government feel every confidence that the next Conference, like those which have preceded it, will help to increase the good understanding and cordial feeling which exist between the Governments of the various self-governing communities of the Empire.

I have, &c.,

ELGIN.

No. 10.

NEW ZEALAND.

Governor Lord Plunket to the Earl of Elgin.

(April 27, 1906. Telegram.)

Colonial Conference. My Responsible Advisers, whilst aware that Governments of self-governing Colonies will be invited to submit proposals for consideration at Conference, would be glad to know whether proposals concerning fiscal matters and preferential trade throughout Empire will be admitted.

No. 11.

NEW ZEALAND.

The Earl of Elgin to Governor Lord Plunket.

(May 12, 1906. Telegram.)

Referring to your telegram of 27th April, any proposals regarding fiscal matters which your Prime Minister may wish to bring forward will be submitted to Conference, in accordance with my despatch of 22nd February.

No. 12.

The Earl of Elgin to the Governors of Self-Governing Colonies.

(May 12, 1906. Telegram.)

Referring to my despatch 22nd February, I have now ascertained by communication with all the Colonies concerned that the date for Colonial Conference most acceptable to all Premiers, having regard to the varying conditions involved in the meeting of their Legislatures, will be April 15th next, in place of the previous suggestion of a date early in March. I have, therefore, much pleasure, on behalf of His Majesty's Government, in inviting your Prime Minister to attend the Conference on 15th April.

INDEX.

Most of the letters and telegrams of the Correspondence are brief; the Index will therefore record them almost as they stand.

Letter 9 is a fairly long one, but is mainly recapitulatory.

Thus §§ 1, 2 summarise the subject-matter of Letters 1-7; § 3 confirms No. 8; § 6 promises further information; § 7 expresses wish for success of the Conference. § 5 is the most important; it asks for subjects which Colonial Governments desire to discuss. This accordingly forms the gist of the Index to No. 9.

For methods of indexing and qualities of a good index, see §§ 354-356.

No.	Place and Date	Names of Correspondents	Subject-Matter
1	Newfoundland 18 Nov. 1905	Gov. Sir W. MacGregor to Mr Lyttelton	Reporting that his Ministers agree in principle to the institution of the contemplated Joint Commission.
2	Canada 5 Dec. 1905	Gov.-Gen. Earl Grey to Mr Lyttelton	Reporting that Ministers have no objection to the Conference being held in 1907 instead of 1906.
3	Natal 22 Dec. 1905	Governor Sir H. E. M'Callum to the Earl of Elgin	Reporting that Ministers agree to the postponement of the next Conference until 1907.
4	Cape Colony (rec.) 23 Dec. 1905	Gov. Sir W. F. Hely-Hutchinson to Mr Lyttelton	Enclosing copy of a minute from Ministers of the Colony.
Encl. in 4	6 Dec. 1905	Ministers to Governor	Stating that they are desirous that the Conference should meet in 1906, due consideration being given to the wishes and necessities of the various Governments in regard to the actual date of assembly.
5	Australia 23 Dec. 1905	Gov.-Gen. Lord Northcote to the Earl of Elgin	Reporting that his Government have no objection to postponement until 1907.

No.	Place and Date	Names of Correspondents	Subject-Matter
6	Newfoundland (rec.) 28 Dec. 1905	Gov. Sir Wm. Mac- Gregor to Mr Lyttelton	Reporting opinion of Ministers that it would be advisable to post- pone the meeting of the Conference till 1907.
7	New Zealand 26 Jan. 1906	Gov. Lord Plunket to the Earl of Elgin	Reporting that Minis- ters see no objection to postponement of the Conference until 1907, but would prefer that it should be held at an early date in that year.
8	19 Feb. 1906	Earl of Elgin to Governors of Self-gov. Colonies	Proposing that Con- ference should meet early in March, 1907.
9	22 Feb. 1906	Earl of Elgin to Governors of Self-gov. Colonies	Confirming No. 8 : requesting to be fur- nished with a statement of any subjects which the Colonial Govern- ments desire should be discussed.
10	New Zealand 27 April 1906	Gov. Lord Plunket to the Earl of Elgin	Inquiring whether pro- posals concerning fiscal matters and prefer- ential trade through- out the Empire will be admitted.
11	12 May 1906	the Earl of Elgin to Gov. Lord Plunket	Stating that any pro- posals on fiscal matters which his Prime Minis- ter may wish to bring forward will be sub- mitted to the Confer- ence.
12	12 May 1906	the Earl of Elgin to Governors of Self-gov. Colonies	Informing them that 15th April, 1907, has been fixed as the date most acceptable to the Colonial Premiers, and inviting them to attend on that day.

The above Index will be of much assistance for the formation of the Précis. No. 1 is outside the subject of the Précis ; all the other letters need to be referred to in the Précis. No. 9 should be carefully studied ; it is itself a kind of Précis of the previous letters. For methods of forming the Précis, and qualities of a good Précis, see §§ 365-368.

PRÉCIS.

As it was impossible for the Prime Ministers of certain Colonies to attend the Conference late in 1906 (the date originally suggested), the Home Government proposed to postpone it till 1907. To this all the Colonies, except Cape Colony, agreed, New Zealand desiring that the early part of the year should be selected. March 1907 was therefore suggested as an approximate date, and the Colonies were asked to submit subjects for discussion by September 1st, 1906. Motions on the fiscal question were to be admitted. Finally, to suit the convenience of the various colonies, a slightly later date, April 15th, 1907, was definitely fixed, and invitations were despatched to the Prime Ministers to attend the Conference on that date.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXIX.

A. FOR PRÉCIS ONLY.

I. The Eruption of Vesuvius.

(1) NAPLES, *Wednesday, March 28, 1906.*

After perceptible shocks of earthquake a crevice opened on the side of Mount Vesuvius this afternoon some hundred yards from the upper station of the Funicular Railway.

Lava is pouring out, and wreaths of smoke are rising from it to a considerable height. The eruption from the principal crater also continues. —Reuter.

(2) NAPLES, *Thursday, March 29.*

The latest phases of the eruption of Vesuvius are much the same as, but more violent than, the symptoms of the last six months. There have been successive streams of lava from the edge of the old crater, and a violent ejection of incandescent stones from the eruptive crater at the summit. The lava flowed across Cook's electric railway four times in the last three weeks of January, and its issue has been accompanied by slight earthquake shocks and subterranean thunder.

On February 1 a small eruptive cone was formed in the lava itself, and on February 6 enormous masses were ejected from the central crater,

and the lava again crossed the electric railway. About this time the combination of snow, ice, fire, steam, and black smoke gave the mountain a terrific appearance.

On March 17 stones from the crater fell on the roof of the upper station of the Funicular Railway, and an imprudent Russian passenger received severe scalp wounds. The railway is now in working order, and tourists can ascend with safety as far as the lava stream, which has crossed the line about half a mile from the observatory. The lava is crossed on mules and donkeys, and the trains run again to the top.

During the recent earthquake at Ustica there was a notable increase in the violence of the explosions from the crater of Vesuvius. Just now the lava is flowing harmlessly towards the north side, but tourists should content themselves with going as far as the end of the Funicular Railway and should not attempt to proceed to the edge of the crater.

The trip by the railway is perfectly safe and is best performed at night, when the spectacle is more impressive.

(3) *USTICA, Thursday, March 29.*

Last night another severe earthquake shock was felt here. The inhabitants of the island are greatly alarmed. Many families are leaving to-day, and others are preparing to do so. A member of the scientific commission sent from Palermo is of opinion that the shocks show no signs of abating.—Reuter.

(4) *NAPLES, Saturday, March 31.*

The activity of Vesuvius is increasing, telegraphs our Naples correspondent, and a stream of lava is flowing towards the observatory.

The cone was covered with snow on Thursday night, and loud explosions occurred, which were heard at Naples.

The first band of convicts rescued from the island of Ustica, where earthquakes still continue, has arrived at Palermo.

(5) *NAPLES, Wednesday, April 4.*

A new crater formed on Mount Vesuvius at three this morning above Pompeii.

Great volumes of steam and black smoke are issuing from the volcano.

NAPLES, Wednesday, April 4.

The explosions in the crater continue to be numerous and violent. Should the crater fall in, interesting phenomena are anticipated. The telegraph line to the Vesuvius Observatory is interrupted.—Reuter.

(6) *NAPLES, Sunday, April 8.*

Vesuvius on Saturday burst into full eruption, and the violence of the volcano continues to increase. An earthquake was felt in Naples yesterday, and is said to have been caused by part of the cone falling in. Lava streams have reached the towns and villages to the south of the mountain, which have been abandoned by the inhabitants.

Ashes and stones falling in other directions have caused some loss of life and grave damage to property. The population of the places near the mountain is in flight, and the eruption appears to be the most serious one recorded for many years.

In the district of San Giuseppe several houses and the church have collapsed. Several dead bodies and injured persons have been extricated from the ruins, while five are known to be still buried.

Two men and a child have been buried beneath a country house in the neighbourhood of San Giovanni. The authorities and troops have abandoned Torre Annunziata, Ottajano, Poggio, Marino, and Somma.

(7)

NAPLES, *Sunday, April 8.*

A stream of lava twenty-one feet high and 600 feet wide is approaching with formidable rapidity the north-west side of Pompeii. The cemetery, some houses, and several properties have been destroyed.—*Reuter.*

(8)

NAPLES, *Monday, April 9.*

The present eruption is far worse than the famous outbreak in 1872. The lava is now flowing down towards the coast towns in three great streams, one of which has all but reached the cemetery at Torre Annunziata. The soldiers there had to fight to prevent the relations of the dead from exhuming the bodies of their relatives.

During last night all the coast and inland towns were terrified by showers of mud. The foreign visitors are leaving Naples en masse.

At least 130,000 persons have now fled from the Vesuvian towns. Very many of them slept last night on the fishing boats in the harbour.

This evening the lava streams are showing signs of stopping.

(9)

NAPLES, *Monday, April 9 (11.35 A.M.).*

The flight of the inhabitants of the town of Torre Annunziata, which is threatened by a great stream of lava from Vesuvius, was continued through the night. The lava is still moving slowly towards the town. Groups of weeping women waited in the darkness along the railway line for trains to take them to Naples.

Volumes of sand are still pouring from the volcano's crater. Electric flashes incessantly pierce the sand clouds, which at sunset take wonderful tints of purple, green, and violet. The eruption is most violent and the matter ejected is thrown to an immense height.

The whole mountain is enveloped in thick smoke from the lava, while sand has fallen so thickly that it has partly blocked the railway lines and impedes traffic. The railway service altogether is in considerable confusion. A train full of refugees was delayed at San Giovanni, five minutes from Naples, for two hours.

(10)

NAPLES, *Monday, April 9 (7.5 P.M.).*

The King and Queen of Italy are taking the greatest interest in the progress of the eruption, and are doing all they can to relieve the distress. Their majesties arrived here a little before seven this morning, and travelled on to Torre Annunziata, which they reached at half past eight. Their majesties visited all the ruined houses, and inquired the value of the crops destroyed by the lava. One result of the King's visit has been a great increase in the military activity in transporting refugees.

(*Daily Mail.*)

II. The Turko-Egyptian Frontier.

(1)

CONSTANTINOPLE, *April 19, 1906*

The British Government being convinced of a prompt settlement of the Tabah question, is carrying on the negotiations firmly but not peremptorily.

(2) CAIRO, Friday, April 20.

As was recently predicted in your columns, the British Government has decided to reinforce the garrison in Egypt. The present strength of the increase is not yet decided.

This is chiefly due to the symptoms of unrest which have recently manifested themselves in the country, due principally to outside influences and partly, some believe, to the impressions on the Oriental mind of the recent war in the Far East.

The increase may also have its effect on opinion in Constantinople.

(3) CAIRO, Wednesday, April 25.

There is every indication that the Turkish Government will maintain its ground against Egypt in the Tabah dispute. A telegram from El Arish states that the Ottoman troops have removed the marble pillars at Refkh, placed there to mark the frontier between Egyptian and Turkish territory. One of those pillars had inscribed upon it the name of the Khedive and the date of his visit to Refkh. This impudent act has more than ever complicated the situation.

With regard to the question of the Persian frontier, the British and Russian Ambassadors have informed their Persian colleague that they have received instructions from their Governments to support measures with a view to the settlement of the difference.

The three Ambassadors had a long conference yesterday at the Persian Embassy. To-day Prince Riza Khan, the Persian Ambassador, renewed his representations to the Porte insisting upon the withdrawal of the Ottoman troops.

The Porte has been greatly impressed by the Anglo-Russian action, and it is believed that the situation is beginning to improve.

4) April 27.

In the House of Commons yesterday Sir Edward Grey stated that the necessity for reinforcing the garrison in Egypt was due to the unrest now existing, which in some measure was owing to the action of the Porte in connection with the frontier.

The time the additional troops would remain in the country would obviously depend on circumstances.

(5) May 2.

Sir E. Grey, in answer to a question in the House yesterday, said: "The demands put forward by the Turkish Government have extended far beyond Tabah and its neighbourhood, and have rendered it necessary that there should be a joint delimitation of the whole frontier on that side, and that pending a general settlement the Turkish forces should retire from Tabah. This is what his Majesty's Government have asked from the beginning, but what the Porte has hitherto declined. The Porte is now being urged again to agree to it."

(6) May 5.

The British Government yesterday officially issued at the Foreign Office the notification to the following effect:—

The British Government yesterday presented a note to Turkey which was virtually equivalent to an ultimatum.

This ultimatum will expire in ten days' time. It constitutes Great Britain's last word on the Turkish encroachment in the Sinaitic Penin-

sula, and demands the withdrawal of Turkish troops from Egyptian territory.

The French and Russian Ambassadors at Constantinople are supporting Sir Nicholas O'Connor, the British Ambassador, in his representations on the subject of the Turkish military occupation of territory which belongs to Egypt.

(7) MALTA, Friday, May 4.

All the battleships and destroyers here have coaled and taken on ammunition and stores. They received orders by wireless telegraphy to-day to proceed east.

Lord Charles Beresford is on the Formidable, and Rear-Admiral Bridgeman is on the Irresistible.

There will be a gathering of all ships at Cape Matapan. The fleet is proceeding from Malta to the Piræus, where they will await developments.

(8) CAIRO, Friday, May 4.

The Note presented by Great Britain to Turkey yesterday demands that the frontier between Egypt and Turkey shall be delimited on the basis of the arrangement which was made in 1892, and that pending such delimitation Tabah shall be evacuated.—Reuter.

(9) May 8.

The Foreign Office has issued the following official version of Sir Edward Grey's statement in the House of Commons yesterday on the subject of the Turco-Egyptian difficulty:—

The British Ambassador on Thursday presented a note at Constantinople requesting the Porte to agree to the demarcation by Great Britain and Turkey on the basis of the telegram from the Grand Vizier to the Khedive of April 8, 1892, and, pending a settlement, to withdraw his troops from Tabah. We have asked for a favourable reply in ten days' time.

After telling the story of the dispute, fully related in the *Daily Mail*, the Foreign Secretary proceeds to state that Turkey's final reply was to the effect that the Gulf of Akaba and the Sinai Peninsula were outside the territory defined in the Imperial Firman; that the telegram of April 8, 1892, only referred to the western side of the Sinai Peninsula; that the interpretation of the telegram was a matter which only concerned the Imperial Ottoman Government; and that Akaba had been adopted as the headquarters of the district of Akaba. The hope was expressed that no occasion would be afforded for interference.

To that, I need only add that the delay, the extent of the demands which have been put forward by the Porte, and the tone and character of the Turkish communications to the Khedive, have made it impossible to defer a settlement indefinitely, and that is why we now press our original demand for joint delimitation.

I think I may claim on behalf of this Government that they have shown great patience and moderation; but the latest developments of the Turkish demands, if admitted, would place Turkey in a position which would be a real danger, not only to the freedom of the Suez Canal, but also to the liberties of Egypt and to the Khedival dynasty.

His Majesty's Government cannot be indifferent to such issues, and the importance of them makes it necessary that we should press for a

settlement on the lines of the frontier of Egypt, as it has existed undisputed and undisturbed for a period many years previous to the British occupation.

(10) CONSTANTINOPLE, *Monday, May 7.*

I learn that in the event of a refusal on the part of Turkey to withdraw the Turkish troops from Tabah within the time limit of the ultimatum, or in the case of any attempt at temporising by the Sultan, the British Fleet assembled at Athens will immediately seize some Turkish port in the *Ægean*.

(11) CONSTANTINOPLE, *Thursday, May 10.*

Sir Nicholas O'Connor this afternoon received Tewfik Pasha, the Foreign Minister, who made proposals that were utterly unacceptable. The British Ambassador told the Minister bluntly to remember that the ultimatum was expiring, and not to attempt to waste time with such talk. He urged him to give a definite reply to the British demands.

Another official was sent on the same mission to the Ambassador and met with the same reception. The Sultan has attempted to negotiate directly with the Khedive, but without success.

If the Sultan does not yield on Sunday the British Fleet will at once proceed to take coercive measures, which have already been decided on and communicated under seal to the British Admiral at the Piræus.

(12) CONSTANTINOPLE, *Friday, May 11 (6 P.M.).*

The Grand Vizier is to have an interview with Sir Nicholas O'Connor at eleven o'clock to-night.

Mr Ryan, British Vice-Consul here, left yesterday for the Piræus.—*Reuter.*

(13) *May 12.*

Musurus Pasha, the Turkish Ambassador, called on Sir Edward Grey yesterday afternoon.

His Excellency's interview with Sir Edward Grey was fairly prolonged. It is understood that there are some grounds for hoping that a settlement of the dispute is on the point of being reached.

(14) CONSTANTINOPLE, *Saturday, May 12.*

An extraordinary Council of Ministers was summoned last evening. As a result of its deliberations, Tewfik Pasha, Minister for Foreign Affairs, was sent late at night to the British Ambassador with a reply to the British ultimatum. The Sultan thus forestalled the expiry of the ultimatum by forty-eight hours.

Tewfik Pasha informed Sir Nicholas O'Connor that the Turkish Government had already ordered the evacuation of Tabah and other localities in the Sinai Peninsula occupied by Turkish troops. Regarding the delimitation of the frontier demanded by Great Britain the Turkish reply suggested that the Turkish and Egyptian officers now on the spot should proceed to re-establish the *status quo ante*.

Sir Nicholas, whose attitude has been unbending throughout, was not satisfied with this suggestion, which is not in accordance with the British demand for a regular Boundary Commission. The Porte to-day gave him further explanations on this point, and unless the Foreign Office rejects these explanations, which amount to virtual submission to the British demand, the incident may be considered closed.

(15) CAIRO, Sunday, May 13.

A special edition of *El Mokattam* announces that Turkey has ordered her troops to evacuate all Egyptian territory.

(16) CONSTANTINOPLE, Sunday, May 13 (7.40 P.M.).

The Turkish garrison at Tabah has withdrawn by order of the Sultan.
—Reuter. (*Daily Mail*.)

III. The Courrières Mine Disaster.

(1) LENS, Sunday, March 11, 1906.

A catastrophe appalling in its magnitude has plunged this melancholy, dreary-looking place into a horrified stupor. This is the Black Country of North France. Everything around one is drab in colour, and the inhabitants have a silent, phlegmatic manner.

Three miles from Lens are the mines of Courrières, the third largest in France, and here on Saturday morning twelve hundred miners, men and youths, were in a few moments hurled into eternity as the result of an explosion of fire-damp, owing to a fire which had been smouldering since Monday in one of the seams. Hundreds more, it is feared, are imprisoned in the hell below, from which, alas, there is little hope of rescue.

(2) LENS, Monday, March 12.

The scenes this morning at the Courrières Mine, in Northern France, and especially at Pit No. 4, were of a dramatic character. As early as seven o'clock the great crowd of miners and relatives had again begun to gather outside the wooden barriers leading into the yard. They were packed so closely together that it was impossible almost to wedge one's way through them. Many hundreds of people who had arrived from afar by the early morning trains to Lens to inquire after their relatives in the mines had joined the crowd and were clamouring to be admitted to view the corpses.

"Unless we are allowed in we will rush the barriers," shouted several men, and in a minute a score of them had wedged themselves in between the soldiers' horses, and were only thrust back with difficulty.

"Unless these people are allowed in I cannot answer for the consequences," said the officer; "I cannot keep order peacefully."

At this declaration the officials of the mine allowed the women inside the yard twenty at a time. They walked through files of soldiers into the lamp-house, and out again through another door leading into the open country.

(3) LENS, Tuesday, March 13.

The most interesting episode of the last twenty-four hours at the collieries at Courrières has been the work of the special team of German coal-mining firemen, whose arrival on Monday evening took the officials of the mine by surprise. There were nineteen of them, headed by a man named Hugo Kopp, who was the captain of the team.

(4) LENS, Wednesday, March 14.

Even the Germans say the work is becoming far too difficult. The men are obliged to wear thick indiarubber gloves in handling the corpses, and before placing them in the cages the bodies are wrapped in linen steeped in carbolic acid.

The statement that men are still alive in the mine telegraphed to

the *Paris Journal* by M. Francis Laur, an ex-mining engineer, is not credited by the mining engineers at Lens. M. Francis Laur says that he is absolutely convinced that some of the men are still entombed alive in the more distant parts of Pit No. 3. "Unfortunately," says M. Laur, "the great fall of mineral has blocked up the passages, and it is impossible to explore them rapidly. If any men are alive, I think some of them may still be able to hold out for another two or three days."

A miners' strike has broken out in the colliery district around Lens, including the survivors employed in the Courrières collieries. Altogether 4000 men have gone out on strike.

(5) LENS, Sunday, March 18.

In order to reach the pits, to which access is at present impossible, it will be necessary to cut through the barriers built to prevent the flames from spreading. It is evident that the air will rush in through the breaches thus made, and very possibly set the galleries ablaze again.

In that case the salvage gangs with the Paris firemen and the German salvage corps will approach as near the fire as possible and stretch a wet canvas screen across the gallery, behind which the men will shelter themselves while a fireman wearing a respirator will advance with the hose and pour a stream of water on the flames.

In this way it is hoped that it will be possible to extinguish the fires, and once this is accomplished the work of recovering the bodies will be resumed.

(6) PARIS, Wednesday, March 21.

So great is the excitement among the miners at Lens, whose delegates yesterday proclaimed a strike involving 80,000 men, that the general in command has applied for a reinforcement of 1000 men.

The more extreme strikers are furious at the arrest of their leader Broutchoux, and are actively hostile to the "Baslicôts," as the Moderates and Socialists are called, after their leader, M. Basly. All last night a band of the Broutchouists patrolled the streets of a number of the mining settlements around Lens, smashing the windows of their comrades suspected of lukewarmness and of those who had refused to join the strike.

(7) PARIS, Saturday, March 24.

A telegram to the *Temps* from Lens says: The strike is losing ground in the Pas-de-Calais notwithstanding the efforts of the pickets, who in some places are tying wire across the roads in order to hamper the cavalry.—Reuter.

(8) LENS, Friday, March 30.

Like an electric shock the news ran round Lens at seven o'clock this morning that some of the miners had been discovered still alive in No. 2 Pit. Twenty-one men had survived through twenty-one days of nervous strain and starvation close on one thousand feet below the surface in the blackest of darkness.

The news had not time to run far before the cage had come up to the mouth of the pit with the first thirteen of the exhausted little band. It has been found impossible to remove the eight others as yet, but every precaution has been taken to provide for their safety.

At the shaft-head the crowd was kept back, and mattresses and

eiderrdowns were laid out and doctors and nurses were on the spot. Twelve of the survivors had to be assisted out of the lift ; the thirteenth refused assistance.

Then the doctors and nurses administered a little milk to each shaking, haggard man. All were black, their eyes sunken, their faces wan. One only of the thirteen, a man named Nemy, had the strength to talk, but the doctors imposed silence, fearing the effect on his wasted frame.

(9) LENS, Sunday, April 1.

The arrival of M. Barthou, the Minister of Public Works, at Courrières this afternoon with the different members of the Commission of Inquiry caused a great sensation among the miners. The Minister was known to be the bearer of the Cross of the Legion of Honour awarded by the Government to Nemy and Pruvost, the two plucky leaders of the thirteen survivors.

Accompanied by the Prefect of the department the Minister went first to the little hospital to perform this pleasant duty. Standing by the bedside of Nemy, he began his speech of congratulation. The miner at once said that he could not accept the cross unless his mate had one too. The second cross was then taken out, and M. Barthou fastened it to the breast of Pruvost's nightshirt.

(10) LENS, Tuesday, April 3.

The explorers returned to the surface at three o'clock this afternoon, and declared that they had found nothing but corpses, and that there is no longer a man alive in the mine.

Twelve of the thirteen rescued men left hospital this evening and returned home. The boy Martin, who is feverish, is alone detained.

(11) LENS, Wednesday, April 4.

Another survivor from the catastrophe of twenty-five days ago was brought up from Shaft No. 4 at Sallaumines at two o'clock this morning.

Three miners were working in the 1000-foot level when they saw staggering towards them the very spectre of a man. He cried faintly " Help me," and fell unconscious into their arms.

The man's name is Auguste Berton. He was immediately brought to the surface and taken to the infirmary. (Daily Mail.)

B. FOR INDEX AND PRÉCIS.

IV. Correspondence regarding the Leeward Islands.

No. 1.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.

Acting-Governor Melville to Mr Chamberlain.
(August 10, 1899. Telegram.)

Regret to report have received information from Montserrat, stating island completely devastated by hurricane, 7th August ; every church and chapel completely destroyed ; all buildings destroyed or damaged ; seventy-four deaths reported up to the present time ; whole country people homeless. Suggest that Mansion House Relief Fund should be started at once.

No. 2.

Colonial Office to Treasury.

SIR,

August 11.

I am directed by Mr Secretary Chamberlain to transmit to you, to be laid before the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, a copy of a telegram which has been received from the Officer Administering the Government of the Leeward Islands, reporting that the Colony under his government has been visited by a hurricane which has caused much loss of life and property.

As their Lordships are aware, under ordinary circumstances Mr Chamberlain is most desirous of holding to the rule that the expenditure in these islands should be kept as low as possible, in order to lighten the burden on the Imperial Exchequer, but, in the circumstances disclosed by this telegram, he feels that it is necessary to make an exception, if great suffering and possibly even loss of life are to be avoided. He therefore proposes, with their Lordships' concurrence, to authorise the Officer Administering the Government by telegram to expend a sum not exceeding £500 for relief in Montserrat, and, if absolutely necessary, a further sum not exceeding £500 for relief in the other islands visited by the hurricane.

I am to request the favour of a reply at their Lordships' earliest convenience.

Mr Chamberlain is not yet in a position to decide whether or not the Acting-Governor's suggestion, that a Mansion House Fund should be opened, should be conveyed to the Lord Mayor.

I am, etc.,

C. P. LUCAS.

No. 3.

Treasury to Colonial Office.

SIR,

August 12.

As requested by Mr Secretary Chamberlain in Mr Lucas's letter of the 11th instant, the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury concur in the proposal to authorise the Officer Administering the Government of the Leeward Islands by telegram to expend a sum of £500 for relief in Montserrat, and (if absolutely necessary) a further sum not exceeding £500 for relief in the other islands visited by the recent hurricane.

I am, etc.,

FRANCIS MOWATT.

No. 4.

*Mr Chamberlain to Acting-Governor Melville.**(Telegram. August 12.)*

In answer to your telegram of 10th August, deeply regret to learn distress and loss of life caused by hurricane in Montserrat and other islands. You are authorised to expend sum not exceeding £500 for relief Montserrat, and if absolutely necessary, equal amounts for relief other islands. Fear it might be of little avail to suggest Mansion House Fund unless necessity most urgent, as to which I await further information.

No. 5.

Acting-Governor Melville to Mr Chamberlain.

(Telegram. August 14.)

Further intelligence received from Montserrat. £10,000 required to feed destitute population. 1000 want medical assistance.

No 6.

Mr Chamberlain to the Lord Mayor.

MY LORD MAYOR,

Your Lordship will have already noticed, through telegrams which have been communicated to the newspapers, that some of the West Indian Islands have been visited by a hurricane, and that among the islands which have suffered are British Colonies in the Leeward Islands groups, and especially the island of Montserrat.

A week has passed since the disaster took place, and, though the first telegram received from the Acting-Governor on the 10th instant asked that a Mansion House Relief Fund should be started at once, I deferred communicating with your Lordship in the hope that later news might indicate that it would not be necessary to repeat the appeal which you made on behalf of the West Indian Colonies in September last. There is no submarine cable to the island of Montserrat, and up to date full particulars have not been received, but such details as have been given point to great loss of life, and to want of food and clothing for several thousands, while in the island of St Kitts it is stated that 3000 people are homeless.

Under these circumstances, I do not feel justified in further postponing an appeal to you to invite public subscriptions on behalf of the sufferers in the Leeward Islands, and I would wish to emphasise the fact, that in the islands which have suffered this year, as much as, or even more than, those which suffered last year, were already from other causes impoverished and distressed; that their administration has only been carried on with Imperial aid; and that poor relief has been a growing charge against falling revenues. Montserrat, in particular, has been year after year subject to visitations of various kinds, and I have already on a previous occasion been forced to enlist the aid of the Mansion House Fund on its behalf.

Should your Lordship see fit to open a fund on the present occasion, I venture to hope that, in view of the pitiful succession of calamities which have befallen our West Indian Colonies, the appeal may meet with a speedy and a liberal response.

I remain, etc.,

J. CHAMBERLAIN.

(M)

V. Correspondence relating to Decree respecting Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs.

No. 1.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 9, 1906.

I have the honour to report the issues this afternoon of an Imperial Decree by which the President of the Board of Revenue is appointed Administrator-General of Customs. Control over all Chinese and foreigners in the Customs Service is given him at the same time.

No. 2.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 10, 1906.

My telegram of yesterday's date.

This decree comes as a surprise to every one, and grave apprehensions are felt here in regard to what the consequences of it may be. I beg leave to suggest that you instruct me to request the Chinese Government to explain the terms of the Decree. I could point out at the same time that His Majesty's Government cannot consent to any change being made in the present system of administration of the Maritime Customs in view of the undertaking given by the Chinese Government in 1898 to Sir C. MacDonald that Sir Robert Hart should be succeeded as Inspector-General by an Englishman, and in view of the terms of Articles 7* and 6* of the Anglo-German Loan Agreements of 1896 and 1898 respectively.

No. 3.

Sir Edward Grey to Mr Carnegie.

(Telegraphic.)

Foreign Office, May 11, 1906.

With reference to your telegram of yesterday relative to the appointment of Administrator-General of Chinese Maritime Customs, the Chinese Government should be informed that His Majesty's Government are anxious to receive an explanation of the Decree as soon as possible. If its object was to interfere with the powers now exercised by the Inspector-General, which His Majesty's Government cannot suppose to be the case, it would constitute a distinct breach of the engagement given by the Chinese Government in the Loan Agreements of 1896 and 1898, to the effect that, during the currency of the Loans, the administration of the Maritime Customs should remain as then constituted.

No. 4.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 16, 1906.

Your telegram of the 11th instant.

I received last night reply of Chinese Government to note which I addressed to them in accordance with the terms of your telegram above referred to.

Reply is evasive and unsatisfactory.

No. 5.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.—(Received May 16.)

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 16, 1906.

My telegram of to-day's date.

Venture to bring to your notice following points which His Majesty's Government may think worthy of consideration when reply to note of Chinese Government is being drawn up.

Interference in internal affairs of China is, of course, not desired by His Majesty's Government. The constitution of the Imperial Maritime Customs of China exists, however, under abnormal conditions. Customs revenues are pledged as security for various loans and 1900 Indemnity,

* The Chinese Imperial Government undertake in the Loan Agreements that the administration of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs shall remain as at present constituted during the currency of this Loan.

and they are administered by foreigners in the employ of the Chinese Government ; any interest taken by His Majesty's Government in their administration is therefore legitimate, and His Majesty's Government only desire to receive an assurance that it is not contemplated to effect any change in the existing system of administration of the Customs.

It is not surprising that the precise import of the Decree is not understood, in view of the way in which it was worded.

No. 6.

Sir Edward Grey to Mr Carnegie.

(Telegraphic.)

Foreign Office, May 17, 1906.

Your telegrams of yesterday.

Reply on lines you suggest is approved. You should impress upon the Chinese Government that we do not wish to interfere in the internal affairs of the country, but that, in view of the engagements contained in the Loan Agreements of 1896 and 1898, on the strength of which they were able to borrow large sums of money, we are entitled to a definite assurance on their part that no change in the Customs administration will be effected by the terms of the Decree.

No. 7.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.—(Received May 28.)

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 28, 1906.

Your telegram of the 17th instant.

I have the honour to report that reply of Chinese Government to note which I addressed to them in accordance with instructions contained in your telegram above referred to has now been received. Note expresses gratification of Chinese Government at the assurance that Great Britain does not wish to interfere with China's internal affairs. Chinese Government consider all their Treaty obligations with foreign Powers and their agreements with banks as most important. They maintain that they have always faithfully observed all such obligations. Chinese Government attach the greatest importance to the collection of customs at the various ports, as has been evinced by the appointment of High Commissioners by the Throne to superintend these matters. These officers will, the Chinese Government feel sure, perform their duties in an admirable manner. The carrying out of any reforms which may have to be made will be effected under orders issued by the Administrators-General to the Inspector-General. The hope is expressed for constant expansion of customs revenues, so that a still safer security may be afforded the bondholders in the various loans.

Chinese Government, in their reply, evade giving assurance asked for, and intimate plainly that the new Administrators have their hands free to effect any changes they may consider fit.

I shall ask Foreign Board categorically at interview, which I have asked for this afternoon, whether they will give His Majesty's Government the assurance required or not.

No. 8.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.—(Received May 28.)

(Telegraphic.)

Peking, May 28, 1906.

My telegram of to-day's date.

I had an interview with the Wai-wu Pu to-day. They gave me a definite promise that a note would be sent to me in a few days, in which

the specific engagement contained in the Loan Agreements of 1896 (Article 7) and 1898 (Article 6), that the administration of the Customs shall continue as at present constituted, would be formally recapitulated and reaffirmed by Chinese Government.

I informed the Foreign Board that the requirements of His Majesty's Government would, I thought, be met by such a note, if its terms were satisfactory.

No. 9.

Mr Carnegie to Sir Edward Grey.-- (Received July 30.)

(Extract.)

Peking, June 14, 1906.

In accordance with the promise reported in my telegram of the 28th ultimo, Prince Ch'ing sent me a note on the evening of the 1st June, which quoted the engagement in Articles 7 and 6 of the Loan Agreements of 1896 and 1898 respectively, and affirmed that the Decree of the 9th May did not make any change in the method of administration of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs therein stipulated.

I have the honour to enclose a translation of Prince Ch'ing's note.

Inclosure in No. 9.

Prince Ch'ing to Mr Carnegie.

(Translation.)

SIR,

Peking, June 1, 1906.

I had the honour to inform you in a note of the 27th May that the special appointment by China of High Commissioners for the exclusive control (or management) of the Maritime Customs made no change in the mode of administration laid down in the Loan Agreements. At an interview at the Wai-wu Pu on the 28th May you intimated that the terms of this note were not sufficiently explicit as to China's intentions, and requested a further statement in the matter.

In the 7th Article of the Loan Agreement of 1896 and in the 6th Article of the Loan Agreement of 1898 it is stipulated "that the administration of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs shall remain as at present constituted during the currency of this loan," and I have the honour to state that the Imperial Decree of the 9th May specially appointing High Commissioners to control (or manage) revenue affairs does not make any change in the method of administration laid down in the Loan Agreements.

While communicating the above to you, for the information of His Majesty's Government, I avail, &c

CHAPTER XXX

FIGURES OF SPEECH

370. **F**IGURATIVE LANGUAGE—A word or phrase is said to be used *figuratively* when it is intended to convey, not its literal meaning, but a secondary or derived meaning which is plain to the hearer or reader. Thus the Adjective *sweet* applies literally to taste, but we also speak of *sweet* music, *sweet* words, etc. Or, again, we may say a thing is as *sweet* as honey. In all these instances we are employing Figures of Speech.

Figures of Speech, or Figures of Rhetoric, may be defined as uncommon or unusual methods of expression, by which the effect of our words is increased.

They are employed chiefly for two purposes :—

(1) For Ornament. They serve to give beauty and variety to our discourse, and to raise it from a commonplace and often monotonous level. Some of the most striking and artistic effects in English Literature are due to the judicious employment of figures of speech—especially of Metaphor and Simile.

(2) For Clearness. Frequently, as the teacher well knows, the idea of a complex subject can be best conveyed by an illustration or analogy.

It will be evident from the examples given in this chapter that the best Figures of Speech often combine both of these functions—they are at once artistic and explanatory.

371. **Classification** — Figures of Speech may be classified according as they depend on :—

(1) Similarity : Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Fable, Parable, Personification.

- (2) Contrast : Antithesis, Oxymoron, Epigram, Irony, Sarcasm, Innuendo, Hyperbole, Litotes, Euphemism, Pun.
- (3) Association : Metonymy, Synecdoche.
- (4) Arrangement : Interrogation, Apostrophe, Repetition, Pleonasm, Climax.

Of all these, by far the most common are the Simile and Metaphor.

372. A SIMILE is the expression of a resemblance existing between two things. The more diverse in their general nature the objects compared are, the greater is the force of the simile. Thus we speak of water being clear as *crystal*; of a runner being swift as a *hare*; of a strong man being like *Samson*. Similes are thus really illustrations of a subject, drawn for the most part from history, legend, or nature. They are generally introduced by the words *like* or *as*.

Examples:—

- (a) The Assyrian came down *like a wolf on the fold*.
- (b) Her eyes as *stars of twilight* fair. ✓
- (c) I wandered lonely as a *cloud*. ✓
- (d) She sat like *Patience on a monument*, ✓
Smiling at grief.
- (e) We are only like *dead walls or vaulted graves*
That ruined yield no echo.
- (f) The quality of mercy is not strained,
It droppeth as *the gentle rain from heaven* ✓
Upon the earth beneath.
- (g) And the great lord of Luna
Fell at that deadly stroke ✓
As falls on Mount Alvernus
A Thunder-smitten oak.

A Simile is sometimes worked out at some length and is then said to be *sustained*: e.g.

- (a) Why, man, he doth bestride the narrow world
Like a Colossus, and we petty men
Walk under his huge legs and peep about ✓
To find ourselves dishonourable graves.
- (b) But as we often see, against some storm,
A silence in the heavens, the rack stand still,
The bold winds speechless, and the orb below
As hush as death, anon the dreadful thunder
Doth rend the region, so after Pyrrhus' pause,
Aroused vengeance sets him new awork.

373. A METAPHOR is an implied comparison. In a simile

the two things compared are stated side by side so that we may mentally compare them; in a metaphor they are stated together in combination, so that a mental effort is needed to perceive the comparison intended. A metaphor may, in fact, be regarded as a *condensed* simile.

Thus we speak of the *silver* moon, meaning that "the moon is as bright *as silver is*." The latter sentence contains a simile—expanded from the metaphor. In the metaphor one part only of each side of the comparison (*silver* and *moon*) is taken and these are fused together. Thus again we say "he is *a snake in the grass*," meaning "he is as deceitful as a snake in the grass is (deceitful)."

Examples:—

- (a) He is *a dog in the manger*.
- (b) Lawrence was *a tower of strength*.
- (c) He were no *lion*, were not Romans *hinds*.
- (d) They were *cut off in the flower* of their age.
- (e) Thy word is *a lamp* unto my feet and *a light* unto my path.
- (f) Error is *a hardy plant*; *it flourishes in every soil*.

A Metaphor, like a Simile, may be **sustained**, many details being effectively brought out in a series of images: *e.g.*

There is *a tide* in the affairs of men
Which *taken at the flood* leads on to fortune,
Omitted, *all the voyage* of our life
Is bound *in shallows* and in miseries.
In such *a full sea* are we now afloat,
And we must take *the current* when it serves,
Or lose our *ventures*.

Metaphors, to be effective, need to be carefully used. As has already been stated, some amount of mental work is needed to perceive the comparison intended. Hence metaphors must not be far-fetched; for a resemblance which no one but the writer can see is worse than useless—it is confusing to the reader's mind.

Neither must they be too frequently employed, nor sustained beyond the point of interest.

Further, we must take care not to apply two different metaphors at the same time. For instance, it would be absurd to say "He steered the ship of state safely through the serried ranks of the

enemy," for the metaphor of a *ship* is conjoined with the metaphor of an *army*. We could make the metaphor good by substituting "through the troubled waters" for "through the serried ranks of the enemy."

Such constructions are called **Mixed Metaphors**. Most "Irish bulls" are of this nature: *e.g.* "I smell a rat; I see it in the air; but I will nip it in the bud." We find examples even among the greatest poets, thus:—

To take up *arms* against a *sea* of troubles. ♀
I that *sucked the honey* of his *music* vows.

As has been said, very much of our ordinary language is metaphorical. Many words are used both literally and metaphorically, and some have even lost their original meaning and are employed solely in their metaphorical sense (§ 269).

374. AN ALLEGORY consists of a metaphor or a series of closely allied and consistent metaphors expanded into a tale. Its object is to teach by illustration some abstract truth, for instance, of morality or religion; in order to effect this, it is necessary that all the incidents described should offer parallels to the subject intended, and that these should be of a sufficiently evident nature to the reader.

The greatest example in our language of an Allegory is Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," in which all the incidents of the hero's journey are comparable with the events of an ordinary Christian's life. Other examples of allegory are Langland's "Piers Plowman" and Spenser's "Faerie Queene." In the latter—intended originally to be an allegory on the reign of Elizabeth—the resemblances are so slight that at length they break down altogether, and the allegory—apart from its intrinsic merits as literature—fails completely.

A Fable and a **Parable** are very similar to an allegory. They are generally shorter. In the **fable** it is customary to make birds and beasts, and even inanimate objects, speak and act like men. The Lesson intended to be conveyed is called the *Moral*, and is often definitely stated at the end of the fable. The best known fables are those of Æsop, which, with greater or less variations, have been translated into all languages.

The **Parable** is a simple story drawn from ordinary life, intended to imply some deep moral or spiritual truth. Examples are Jotham's parable of the Bramble, and Christ's parables of the Sower, the Talents, the Ten Virgins, etc.

375. PERSONIFICATION is a figure which ascribes the characteristics of animate beings: *e.g.* life, thought, speech, feeling, to things inanimate or to abstract qualities. It is, therefore, allied to Metaphor and Allegory. Thus we speak of the sun as "he" and the moon as "she"; we say that "the ship broke her mast"; that "love is blind"; that "necessity knows no law." Other examples are:—

- (a) Let the floods clap their hands, and the hills be joyful together.
- (b) I heard the thunder hoarsely laugh.
- (c) Death is no respecter of persons.
- (d) The stars in their courses fought against Sisera.
- (e) And now the storm-blast came, and he was tyrannous and strong.

We frequently use this figure of speech unconsciously, as when we speak of a *promising* morning, a *treacherous* sky, a *thankless* task.

376. ANTITHESIS is the illustration of a subject by the method of *contrast*. In many cases, nothing serves better to give a clear idea to a person's mind of a thing than to state exactly what it is *not*. Further, by balancing two opposing words or ideas against each other, vividness is obtained.

Examples:—

- (a) Speech is silver ; silence is golden.
- (b) To err is human ; to forgive, divine.
- (c) He wept for joy.
- (d) The evil that men do lives after them,
The good is often interred with their bones.
- (e) Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull ;
Strong without rage ; without o'erflowing full.

The first two of these are examples of *Double Antithesis* ; thus in (a) *speech* is contrasted with *silence*, and *silver* with *golden*.

An **Epigram** was originally an inscription to some hero ; and as such an inscription naturally summarised his qualities as

tersely as possible, the term gradually passed into its present meaning—a brief, pointed expression showing contrast. It is of the same nature as a Proverb: indeed many epigrams have passed into proverbs.

Tradition says that the following witty epigram was written of Charles II. during his lifetime:—

Here lies a king whose word no man relies on;

Who never said a foolish thing, and never did a wise one.

To which the king replied by another epigrammatical remark:—

True; my words are my own; my actions, my ministers'.

Examples:—

(a) More haste, less speed.

(b) Conspicuous by its absence.

(c) It is a custom more honoured in the breach than the observance.

(d) Do not put off till to-morrow what may be done to-day.

Oxymoron is a statement which, on the surface, seems to contradict itself; it is a kind of concise paradox.

Examples:—

(a) Masterly inactivity.

(b) There is *method* in his *madness*.

(c) He is condemned to a *living death*.

(d) If I did love you . . . with such a *deadly life*.

(e) His honour rooted in dishonour stood,

And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.

377. IRONY AND SARCASM—These figures are closely related to one another, and less closely to Innuendo and Euphemism. In all four, contrast is implied between the literal meaning of the words employed and their intended significance.

Irony is a mode of expression by which the words are intended to suggest the opposite to their literal meaning. For instance, if we say "You are a fine fellow to enter for that examination," we mean that the person addressed is not at all likely to be successful. The effect of irony generally depends on the tone of voice in which the words are uttered, and on their context.

Mark Antony's oft-repeated words: "Brutus is an honourable man," become more and more ironical as he proceeds to give instances which prove the opposite; we can imagine the gradual change in the tone of his voice.

Irony which is intended to be bitter and actually offensive is termed **Sarcasm**. Such irony is found in satirical works (§ 393).

Examples :—

- (a) He is a perfect Solomon.
- (b) See how these Christians love one another !
(Originally literal, now sarcastic.)
- (c) Who both by precept and example shows
That prose is verse, and verse is merely prose.
(Byron on Wordsworth.)

Innuendo is a figure by which a certain meaning—usually disagreeable—is conveyed by insinuation.

Examples :—

- (a) The resources of that country are like the snakes in Ireland.
(i.e. there are none.)
- (b) His ideas of the truth are peculiar.
(i.e. he does not tell the truth.)
- (c) That matter is postponed till the Greek Kalends.
(i.e. for ever, since there were no Greek Kalends.)

378. A PUN is a play either on the different meanings of the same word, or on the meanings of words resembling one another in sound. It is usually employed for the sake of humour.

Examples :—

That *lie* shall *lie* so heavy on thy sword.
Not on thy *sole* but on thy *soul*, harsh Jew !
Is life worth living ? That depends upon the *liver*.

379. EUPHEMISM (literally, “speaking well”) consists in softening the effect of some unpleasant or terrible circumstance or truth by describing it in pleasant terms. In that the words used do not bear their literal meaning, Euphemism resembles Irony and Innuendo ; but whereas the effects of the latter are offensive or irritating, those of Euphemism are soothing to the person addressed.

Examples :—

- (a) He *passed away* (i.e. died) last night.
- (b) I know not, gentlemen, what you intend,
Who else must be *let blood*, who else *is rank*.
- (c) What, *must our mouths be cold* ? (i.e. must we die ?)

Euphemism must not be confounded with Euphuism (§ 263).

380. HYPERBOLE consists in exaggeration, not for the pur-

pose of deceiving anyone, but merely for the sake of effect. Thus when we say: "He ran *as fast as lightning*" or "that idea is *as old as the hills*," no one, of course, imagines that our statements are intended to be taken literally. Care should be taken to avoid unconscious exaggeration: *e.g.*, a circumstance which is merely *unusual* should not be termed *marvellous*.

Examples:—

- (a) Then said Daniel unto the king: "O king, live for ever."
- (b) They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.
- (c) Weep your tears
Into the channel, till the lowest stream
Do kiss the most exalted shores of all.
- (d) I loved Ophelia: forty thousand brothers
Could not with all their quantity of love
Make up the sum.

Litotes is the converse of Hyperbole. Here we purposely underrate a thing, and secure an effect by denying the contrary.

Examples:—

- (a) That man is *no fool* (*i.e.* is clever).
- (b) Marlborough was a general of *no mean reputation*.
- (c) He is certainly *not a millionaire*.

381. METONYMY, which means literally "change of name," is the representation of an object by means of some other object or circumstance associated with it. Sometimes the cause of a thing is put for its effect, and vice versa. Thus when we say: "The *pen* is mightier than the *sword*" we mean that *books* have greater influence than *battles fought*.

Examples:—

- (a) Mine eyes have seen *Thy salvation* (*i.e.* Him who shall bring Thy salvation).
- (b) The *House* sat for three hours (*i.e.* members of Parliament).
- (c) The *kettle* is boiling (*i.e.* the *water* contained by the kettle).
- (d) Friends, Romans, and countrymen, lend me your *ears* (*i.e.* attention).
- (e) The *stage* is greatly reformed (*i.e.* the *actors*).
- (f) He is studying *Shakspeare* (*i.e.* Shakspeare's *works*).

Synecdoche closely resembles Metonymy. Here the part is put for the whole, the less general for the more general; or vice versa.

Examples :—

- (a) All *hands* on deck !
- (b) The power of the *crown* is limited.
- (c) Some mute inglorious *Milton* here may rest,
Some *Cromwell* guiltless of his country's blood
(*i.e.* some man like Milton or Cromwell).
- (d) No useless coffin enclosed *his breast*.

382. INTERROGATION—Questions are sometimes asked, not with a view to an answer, but for rhetorical effect. They are then figures of speech. The answer should be obvious, and may or may not be given by the speaker or writer.

Examples :—

- (a) Who hath believed our report ? And to whom is the arm of the Lord revealed ?
- (b) Can the Ethiopian change his skin or the leopard his spots ?
- (c) Which of you by taking thought can add one cubit unto his stature ?
- (d) Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath ?
Can Honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or flattery soothe the dull cold ear of Death ?

383. APOSTROPHE is a figure of speech by which some person (generally absent or dead), or some abstract idea personified, is addressed.

Examples :—

- (a) Stern daughter of the Voice of God !
O Duty, if that name thou love. . . .
- (b) O ye gods, ye gods, must I endure all this ?
- (c) Pardon me, Julius ! Here wast thou bay'd, brave hart !
- (d) England, with all thy faults I love thee still,
My country !

384. REPETITION, as a figure of speech, is a mode of emphasising a thing by saying it more than once, either in the same or in different words. If the repetition is in different words it is often termed Parallelism.

Examples :—

- (a) Water, water, everywhere,
And not a drop to drink !
- (b) At her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay down ; at her feet he bowed, he fell ; where he bowed, there he fell down dead.
- (c) Half a league, half a league, half a league onward.
- (d) And Nokomis warned her often,
Saying oft, and oft repeating . . .

Pleonasm is a form of repetition in which the same idea is expressed again in *a different grammatical construction*: thus a Verb may be followed by an Adverbial phrase meaning the same, or a Noun be accompanied by an Adjective conveying the same thought. Pleonasm is sometimes effective, but should be used sparingly (see § 261).

Examples:—

- (a) I saw it *with my own eyes*.
- (b) The sly slow hours shall not *determinate*
The *dateless limit* of my dear exile.
- (c) Essex had the *sole monopoly* of sweet wines.
- (d) *Most falsely* doth he lie.

385. CLIMAX is the arrangement of a series of statements in order of ascendancy, so that the last is the strongest of all.

Examples:—

- (a) I came, I saw, I conquered.
- (b) The cloud-capped towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself
Yea all which it inherit, shall dissolve.
- (c) What a piece of work is man! How infinite in faculties!
In form and motion how express and admirable! In action
how like an angel! In apprehension how like a god!

Anti-climax or **Bathos** is the converse of Climax. In this figure, the statements gradually descend in order of importance. It is used humorously with success, but otherwise, when unintentional, it often produces ludicrous effects.

Examples:—

- (a) He is a great philosopher and a member of parliament, and he plays golf well.
- (b) He lost his wife, his children—and his purse.
- (c) And thou, Dalhousie, the great god of war,
Lieutenant-Colonel to the Earl of Mar.
- (d) Werther had a love for Charlotte, such as words could never utter;
Would you know how first he met her? She was cutting bread and butter.

*Her thou st. Anna whom three realms obey.
Not some times counsel to be some times la*

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXX.

1. Define the following terms and illustrate them by examples:—
Bathos, hyperbole, euphemism, euphuism, antithesis, metonymy.
2. Explain the term metaphor. How does a metaphor differ from a simile? Why is it a fault in style to mix metaphors?
3. Point out errors in the figures of speech in the following, and correct them:—

- (1) No human happiness is so serene as not to contain any alloy.
 - (2) Let us be attentive to keep our mouths as with a bridle, and to steer our vessel aright that we may avoid the rocks and shoals around us.
 - (3) In a word, he apes the worst behaviour of the mule.
 - (4) The capture of Cape Town from the Dutch sowed the seed of our South African possessions, and paved the way for future administration.
 - (5) He was ever a light to guide us, behind which we could always shelter ourselves.
 - (6) The state stood prostrate at the tyrant's foot.
4. State and explain carefully the figures of speech in the following
(Note: Some of these passages contain more than one figure):—
- (1) And thou sad hour selected from all years
To mourn our loss, rouse thy obscure compeers
And say: "With me died Adonais."
 - (2) And that which would appear offence in us,
His countenance, like richest alchemy,
Will change to virtue and to worthiness.
 - (3) A horse! A horse! A kingdom for a horse!
 - (4) Every cloud has a silver lining.
 - (5) Towards die many times before their death;
The valiant never taste of death but once.
 - (6) Though some of you with Pilate wash your hands
Showing an outward pity; yet you Pilates
Have here delivered me to my sour cross.
 - (7) Look how the Lion of the sea lifts up his ancient crown,
And underneath his deadly paw treads the gay lilies down.
So stalked he when he turned to flight, on that famed Picard
field,
Bohemia's plume, and Genoa's bow, and Cæsar's eagle
shield.
 - (8) Having nothing, yet possessing all things.
 - (9) Frailty, thy name is woman!
 - (10) But life itself, being weary of these worldly bars,
Never lacks power to dismiss itself.
 - (11) Though only a beginner, he is already a good shot.
 - (12) He was led like a lamb to the slaughter.
 - (13) After a gallant defence, the town fell into the hands of the
enemy.
 - (14) Russia at length made terms with Japan.
 - (15) All that I live by is with the awl; I meddle with no trades-
men's matters, nor women's matters, but with all.
 - (16) Many a time and oft
Have you climbed up to walls and battlements,
To towers and windows, yea, to chimney-tops. B.
 - (17) He carries his fifty summers lightly.
 - (18) With how sad steps, O Moon, thou climbest to the sky!
 - (19) Fair waved the golden corn.
 - (20) The bride hath paced into the hall,
Red as a rose is she.
 - (21) Hark how each giant oak and desert cave,
Sighs to the torrent's awful voice beneath!

- (22) Then the progeny which springs
From the forest of our land,
Armed with thunder, clad with wings,
Shall a wider world command.
- (23) Though gods they were, as men they died.
- (24) Such as these
Presume to lay their hand upon the ark
Of her magnificent and awful cause.
- (25) Cry aloud : for he is a god ; either he is talking, or he is
pursuing, or he is in a journey, or peradventure he sleep-
eth and must be awaked.
- (26) He drank the cup without another word.
- (27) Brave peers of England, pillars of the state.
- (28) Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice.
- (29) Only the actions of the just
Smell sweet and blossom in the dust.
- (30) Thanks, proud peacock, for thy tuneful song !

*And grief is real swells his eyes
When spouse as when he part. dis.*

CHAPTER XXXI

PARAPHRASING

386. **A** PARAPHRASE, in its most general sense, is the expression of a passage in other words. When we explain anything to a child we use simple language such as he can understand, and his comprehension of the subject taught will depend to a great extent on the success of our *paraphrase*. So also in translation from one language to another, an exactly literal rendering often makes nonsense, owing to the varied workings of the minds of different nations; we are obliged therefore to *paraphrase* certain words and phrases.

387. **AIMS OF PARAPHRASING**—As an exercise in English, paraphrasing consists in the careful rendering of the meaning of a literary passage of prose or verse in other and, where possible, simpler language than the original; its object is to explain or make clearer the meaning of the original.

As we are obliged to translate, so to speak, from what is probably beautiful and dignified language into our own ordinary mode of expression, the paraphrase is ever somewhat unsatisfactory, and sometimes even bathetic. This is especially true when a passage of sublime poetry, such as that of Milton, is in the hands of a beginner watered down into the flattest prose. If, however, the results of paraphrasing are not always particularly happy, there are many reasons why, as an exercise, it is useful. It trains the mind to think out carefully the exact meaning and the value of each word of the original, and hence enlarges our knowledge of English; it increases our vocabulary and facilitates freedom of expression, since we have, where possible, to find other words and other constructions equivalent to those of the

original; and, owing to the necessity of concentrating our thought on one passage rather than vaguely reading a large amount, it helps us to enter more closely into the spirit and meaning of the author, just in the same way as parsing and analysis help us to understand the grammatical and logical relation of the words.

388 METHODS OF PARAPHRASING—There are two opposite methods of paraphrasing, which we shall call the *General* and the *Literal*. The **General Method** consists in reading through the passage several times, and then writing down its general purport, ignoring detail. This practically amounts to Reproduction (Chapter xxiii.). The **Literal Method** consists in taking the passage as it stands, altering the arrangement of the words to suit prose order, and replacing words (where possible) by equivalent words. The *first* helps us to grasp the main ideas of the passage and of the author's method of treatment; but, on the other hand, it fails to unfold the detailed expression and force of each word, and the result is therefore, as a rule, vague and shallow. The *second* produces an effect something like that of a slavishly literal translation from French into English; the words are English, but meaning is in the main unintelligible and ridiculous.

A great many attempts at paraphrase err by their too close adherence to one or other of these methods, and especially to the latter.

The Combined Method. A good paraphrase is obtained by a felicitous combination of these two methods. On the one hand, the paraphrase should contain as much as possible of the meaning of the original, even to the smallest details; and, on the other hand, the result should be a readable piece of prose, developing in logical order and proportion the ideas rather than the words of the original. In what proportion, then, ought the two methods to be combined so as to produce the best results? This must depend on two things:—

(1) The taste of the writer. Our minds do not all work in the same groove, and it is unnecessary to force them to do so. It

is quite possible to have two equally good paraphrases of the same passage, one inclining to the general, the other to the literal.

(2) The nature of the subject. Some passages may be treated almost entirely on the lines of one or other of the methods. This is especially the case where a single phrase or sentence is given for paraphrasing. Thus :—

(a) "The child is father to the man."

Here a literal rendering, such as "The infant is the parent of the grown up person," reaches the height of absurdity without in any way explaining the meaning. Some general rendering like "A child's character is generally a good indication of what he will be as a man," is necessary.

(b) "The loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind."

Here the fairly literal rendering, "The hearty laughter that showed a mind free from care," is quite satisfactory.

389. MODE OF PROCEDURE RECOMMENDED—

(a) Read through the passage several times so as to be quite clear as to the meaning, not only of the whole generally, but also of each phrase.

(b) Write a rough copy in your own words of the meaning of the whole. After some practice it will be sufficient to think this out mentally without writing it down.

(c) Next find synonyms for the most important words ; do not select the first that occurs, nor be satisfied till the best one is obtained. Then try to change some of the constructions ; active for passive, adverbial clause for adverbial phrase, the general for the particular, and so forth. From the next chapter the student will understand that many words and constructions in poetry are unsuited to prose diction.

(d) In writing the final paraphrase, it is generally best to proceed, not word by word or line by line, but sentence by sentence, thinking out the paraphrase of each sentence before writing it down. Sometimes it is necessary to be even more general than this owing to repetition from one sentence to another or illogical order of the original.

390. REMARKS ON THE PARAPHRASE—

(1) It is important to remember that the paraphrase is a piece of composition: all the rules applicable to composition must therefore be carefully observed. Long and involved sentences, which are specially common in poetry, should be broken up.

(2) **Simplicity** is an essential feature. The aim of the paraphrase is to explain, and it therefore needs to be couched in straightforward and unaffected English. Owing to its explanatory nature, the paraphrase will nearly always be rather longer than the original.

(3) It is not necessary that a synonym should be found for every word; it frequently happens that the author of the original has selected the only word suitable. In that case there is no harm in retaining the original word, or even, in extreme cases, the original sentence. Under no circumstances should a difficult word or involved construction take the place of a simple word or construction.

(4) Figures of speech (Chap. xxx.) may be retained with change of phraseology, or may be transmuted into ordinary language; but care should be taken not to mix figurative and ordinary.

391. SPECIMENS OF PARAPHRASING—

I. ORIGINAL.

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey
Where wealth accumulates and men decay:
Princes and lords may flourish or may fade;
A breath can make them as a breath has made;
But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

PARAPHRASE.—A land will not prosper in which wealth falls into the hands of a few people whilst the mass of the population dies out; an evil fate will soon overtake it. It matters little whether kings or nobles die, for others can be easily created; but it is impossible to fill the place of brave peasants who are the backbone of the nation.

II. ORIGINAL.

By our common law, although there be for the prince provided many princely prerogatives and royalties, yet it is not such as the prince can take money or other things or do as he will at his own pleasure without order, but quietly to suffer his subjects to enjoy their own without wrongful oppression: wherein other princes by their liberty do take as pleaseth them.

PARAPHRASE.—Although the king of our country enjoys many royal privileges according to law and has grants of money provided for him, he has not the power, as many kings have, of extorting money or any-

thing else from his subjects. In fact he dare not interfere with their liberties in any way, except by act of parliament, but must allow them the full enjoyment of their rights and property.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXXI.

1. Put into good modern prose, and write notes on any historical allusions in the following passages :—

- (1) "Wherefore we require you give us answer one or other, whether ye be minded to have this noble prince now protector to be your king or not." At these words the people began to whisper among themselves secretly, that the voice was neither loud nor distinct but as it were the sound of a swarm of bees, till at the last in the nether end of the hall, a bushment of the duke's servants, and Nashefeldes and others longing to the protector, with some prentices and lads that thrust into the hall among the press, began suddenly at men's backs to cry out as loud as their throats would give, "King Richard, king Richard."
- (2) The king that day showed himself a valiant knight, albeit almost felled by the Duke of Alençon; yet with plain strength he slew two of the duke's company and felled the duke himself; whom when he would have yielded, the king's guard slew out of hand. In conclusion, the king minding to make an end of that day's work, caused his horsemen to fetch a compass about, and to join with him against the rearward of the Frenchmen.
- (3) "My lords, I thank you then," quoth queen Catherine, "of your good wills; but to make answer to your request I cannot so suddenly, for I was set among my maidens at work, thinking full little of any such matter, wherein there needeth a longer deliberation and a better head than mine, to make answer to so noble wise men as ye be."

2. Express as completely as you can in prose the sense of the following :—

- (1) As long as skies are blue and fields are green,
Evening must usher night, night urge the morrow.
- (2) One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
- (3) And on the tossing sea of steel
To and fro the standards reel.
- (4) The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave
Awaits alike the inevitable hour.
- (5) Hope springs eternal in the human breast:
Man never is, but always to be blest.
- (6) Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
(That last infirmity of noble minds)
To scorn delights and live laborious days.
- (7) Day set on Norham's castled steep.
- (8) Yet the lark's shrill life may come
At the daybreak from the fallow,
And the bittern sound his drum
Booming from the sedgy hollow.

- (9) Turn, Fortune turn thy wheel with smile or frown ;
 With that wild wheel, we go not up or down ;
 Our hoard is little, but our hearts are great.

- (10) The child is father of the man :
 And I could wish my days to be
 Bound each to each by natural piety. (M)

3. Paraphrase the following :—

- (1) Are you content . . . to make a virtue of necessity ?
 (2) In notes with many a winding bout
 Of linked sweetness long drawn out.
 (3) The rank is but the guinea's stamp,
 The man's the gowd for a' that.
 [gowd = gold ; a' = all.]
 (4) The dread of something after death,
 The undiscovered country from whose bourn
 No traveller returns, puzzles the will,
 And makes us rather bear those ills we have,
 Than fly to others that we know not of.
 (5) Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.
 (6) The loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind. (M)

4. Paraphrase the following passages, and write short notes explaining the historical allusions contained in them :—

- (1) It was the time when England's queen
 Twelve years had reigned, a sovereign dread ;
 Nor yet the restless crown had been
 Disturbed upon her virgin head ;
 But now the inly working North
 Was ripe to send its thousands forth,
 A potent vassalage to fight
 In Percy's and in Neville's right.
 Two earls fast leagued in discontent,
 Who gave their wishes open vent,
 And badly urged a general plea,
 The rights of ancient piety
 To be triumphantly restored
 By the stern justice of the sword.
 (2) Ere you were queen, yea, or your husband king,
 I was a pack-horse in his great affairs.

In all which time you and your husband Grey
 Were factions for the house of Lancaster,
 And, Rivers, so were you. Was not your husband
 In Margaret's battle at St Albans slain ?

Poor Clarence did forsake his father, Warwick ;
 Yea, and forswore himself—which Jesu pardon—
 To fight on Edward's party for the crown ;
 And for his meed, poor lord, he is mew'd up.

- (3) Weave the warp and weave the woof
 The winding sheet of Edward's race ;
 Give ample room and verge enough
 The characters of hell to trace.
 Mark the year, and mark the night,

When Severn shall re-echo with affright.
 The shrieks of death, through Berkeley's roof that ring,
 Shrieks of an agonising king ;
 She-wolf of France, with unrelenting fangs,
 That tear'st the bowels of thy mangled mate,
 From thee be born who o'er thy country hangs
 The scourge of heaven ! (M)

5. Of each of the following passages : (1) State its general purport ;
 (2) Explain, particularly, the meaning of each portion printed in italics ;
 (3) Write short notes on any historical allusions in it.

- (1) Old men forget ; yet all shall be forgot
 But he'll remember *with advantages*
 What feats he did that day : then shall our names
Familiar in his mouth as household words,
 Harry the king, Bedford and Exeter,
 Warwick and Talbot, Salisbury and Gloucester,
Be in their flowing cups freshly remembered.
 (2) What checks the fiery soul of James ?
 Why sits that champion of the dames
 Inactive on his steed,
 And sees between him and his land
 Between him and Tweed's southern strand
 His host Lord Surrey lead ?

O for one hour of Wallace wight
 Or well-skilled Bruce, to rule the fight,
 And cry "*St Andrew and our right !*"
 Another sight had seen that morn,
From Fate's dark book a leaf been torn,
 And Flodden had been Bannockbourne !

6. Paraphrase the following and write notes on the historical allusions contained in them :—

- (1) The king that loved him, as the state stood then,
 Was force perforce compelled to banish him :
 And then that Henry Bolingbroke and he,
 Being mounted and both roused in their seats

Then, then, when there was nothing could have stay'd
 My father from the breast of Bolingbroke,
 O, when the king did throw his warder down,
 His own life hung upon the staff he threw.

- (2) Cromwell our chief of men, who through a cloud

Hast reared God's trophies, and his work pursued,
 While Darwen stream, with blood of Scots imbrued,
 And Dunbar field, resounds thy praises loud,
 And Worcester's laureate wreath : yet much remains
 To conquer still ; peace hath her victories
 No less renowned than war.

- (3) " Sweet is the holiness of youth "—so felt
 Time-honoured Chaucer, when he framed the lay
 By which the prioress beguiled the way,
 And many a pilgrim's rugged heart did melt.

Hadst thou, loved Bard ! whose spirit often dwelt
 In the clear land of vision, but foreseen
 King, child, and seraph, blended in the mien
 Of pious Edward kneeling as he knelt
 In meek and simple infancy, what joy
 For universal Christendom had thrilled
 Thy heart ! What hopes inspired thy genius, skilled
 (O great Precursor, genuine morning star)
 The lucid shafts of reason to employ,
 Piercing the papal darkness from afar !
 (4) Know that when made Archbishop I was freed,
 Before the Prince and chief Justiciary,
 From every bond and debt and obligation
 Incurr'd as Chancellor.

Hear me son.

As gold

Outvalues dross, light darkness, Abel Cain,
 The soul the body, and the Church the Throne.
 I charge thee, upon pain of mine anathema,
 That thou obey, not me, but God in me,
 Rather than Henry. I refuse to stand
 By the King's censure, make my cry to the Pope,
 By whom I will be judged ; refer myself,
 The King, these customs, all the Church, to him,
 And under his authority—I depart. (M)

7. Explain the italicised portions of the following passage, and write notes on the historical allusions in it :—

(1) At this time the king began again to be haunted with spirits by the magic and curious arts of the Lady Margaret, who raised up the ghost of Richard, Duke of York, second son to King Edward the Fourth, to walk and vex the king. *This was a finer counterfeit stone than Lambert Simnel, better done and worn upon greater hands, being graced after with the wearing of a king of France and a king of Scotland, not of a Duchess of Burgundy only.* And for Simnel, there was not much in him more than that he was a handsome boy, and did not shame his robes. *But this youth of whom we are now to speak was such a mercurial as the like hath seldom been known, and could make his own part if at any time he chanced to be out.* (M)

8. Paraphrase and explain the historical allusions in the following :—

- (1) Not all the water in the rough rude sea
 Can wash the balm from an anointed king ;
 The breath of worldly men cannot depose
 The deputy elected by the Lord :
 For every man that Bolingbroke hath pressed
 To lift shrewd steel against our golden crown,
 God for his Richard hath in heavenly pay
 A glorious angel : then, if angels fight,
 Weak men must fall, for heaven still guards the right.
- (2) Ye towers of Julius, London's lasting shame,
 With many a foul and midnight murder fed,
 Revere his consort's faith, his father's fame,

And spare the meek usurper's holy head !
 Above, below, the rose of snow,
 Twined with her blushing foe, we spread ;
 The bristled boar in infant gore
 Wallows beneath the thorny shade.

- (3) Then you lost
 The view of earthly glory : men might say,
 Till this time pomp was single, but now married
 To one above itself. Each following day
 Became the next day's master, till the last
 Made former wonders its. To-day the French,
 All clinquant, all in gold, like heathen gods,
 Shone down the English ; and, to-morrow, they
 Made Britain India : every man that stood
 Showed like a mine.
- (4) Never durst he attempt our hapless shore,
 Nor set his foot on fatal Ravenspore ;
 Nor durst his slugging hulks approach the strand,
 Nor stoop a top as signal to the land,
 Had not the Percies promised aid to bring
 Against their oath unto their lawful king,
 Against their faith unto our crown's true heir,

9. Express in simple prose :

- (1) Her downcast eye e'en pale affliction rears
 To sigh a thankful prayer, amid the glee
 That hailed the despot's fall, and peace and liberty.
- (2) We'll have a swashing and a martial outside
 As other mannish cowards have
 That do outface it with their semblances.
- (3) Scantly Lord Marmion could brook
 The harper's barbarous lay.
- (4) Give me in peace my heriot due,
 The bonny white steed, or thou shalt rue.
- (5) O good old man, how well in thee appears
 The constant service of this antique world, '
 When service sweat for duty not for meed !
- (6) Thy word is current with him for my death,
 But dead, thy kingdom cannot buy my breath.
- (7) Thither full fraught with mischievous revenge,
 Accursed and in a cursed hour, he hies.
- (8) But first he casts to change his proper shape,
 Which else might work him danger or delay.

CHAPTER XXXII

PROSE AND POETRY

392. **L**ITERATURE, in its widest sense, includes the whole of the written expression of a nation's thoughts from the earliest times.

All literature falls naturally into two classes—Prose and Poetry.

Prose (Latin *prorsus* = unchecked) is the language of ordinary life: it includes our conversation, composition, and by far the greater portion of what we read.

Poetry is an artistic form of literature, the main object of which is beauty and dignity of thought and language. It differs from prose in form and diction, as will be presently described.

393. **CLASSIFICATION OF PROSE**—The very varied nature of the subjects treated, and the manner of their treatment, makes an exhaustive classification of either prose or poetry practically impossible. There is bound to be some overlapping—many works belonging partly to one class and partly to another; and some works fall within no general class, but stand, as it were, by themselves. The majority of our Prose writings may, however, be grouped as: I. Technical work; II. History; III. Description; IV. Fiction; V. Humour and Satire; VI. Reflection.

I. Technical Work. This includes all works which are intended merely and solely for the purpose of giving information or instruction in a particular subject. Thus we may have a treatise on Algebra, a grammar of the German language, or a science text-book. In all such works form is subordinated to matter.

Some authorities, adopting a narrower definition of literature than the one given above, would exclude technical works from Literature altogether.

II. History and Biography. This includes all narratives dealing with events in the life of a nation or of an individual. From one aspect History and Biography are technical composition, for their aim is, in the first place, to instruct: and an elementary text-book on history can undoubtedly be so classed.

The value of history, however, depends not only on the correct statement of facts—though this is important—but also on:—

(1) The critical and reflective faculties displayed by the historian in his selection and arrangement of material, and the inferences drawn from that material.

(2) The literary art with which he narrates and explains.

Among the greatest examples of *History* are: Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," Clarendon's "History of the Great Rebellion," Napier's "Peninsular War," and the works of Macaulay, Freeman, Stubbs, Gardiner, and J. R. Green.

As examples of *Biography* may be mentioned: Boswell's "Life of Johnson," Lockhart's "Life of Scott," Stanley's "Life of Arnold," Morley's "Life of Gladstone," and Southey's "Life of Nelson."

III. Description. There is a large class of works to which this term is applicable, such as travels, voyages, antiquarian researches. They usually have for their object both instruction and entertainment; a merely instructive treatise such as a text-book of geography would not find a place here, but under technical works.

As examples may be named: Ruskin's "Stones of Venice," Prescott's "Peru and Mexico," Hakluyt's "Voyages," Nansen's "Farthest North," Stanley's "In Darkest Africa."

IV. Fiction. Under this heading are included all tales, novels, and romances which narrate events more or less imaginary. Their chief and almost sole aim is to give pleasure, either by the novelty of the incident or by the style of composition; if any idea of instruction—such as that of teaching morality—is present at all, it is, and must be, quite subsidiary.

Though such works are written under a form to some extent similar to that of history, the writer is perfectly free as to material and treatment. He can choose his own facts and weave them together as he likes; he may treat them seriously or humorously;

he can include incident, description, and argument. Hence a great opportunity is offered in this class of work to the writer's imagination. Works of fiction may be subdivided as follows:—

(1) **Supernatural or Legendary Romances.** These deal with events which are impossible, or at least improbable. Thus we have the wonderful collection of *Legends* of the Greeks and Romans dealing with the adventures of their gods and early heroes. The value of national legends in illuminating the early history and customs of a people is a quality quite apart from their charm and interest as tales.

Under this head may be included Fairy Tales, of which "Alice in Wonderland" and Kingsley's "Water-Babies" are good modern representatives.

(2) **Allegorical Romances.** These usually treat of events of common life, such as might actually occur, and probably have occurred often enough. Behind the tale there is, however, a hidden meaning which the casual reader may not trouble to perceive. Examples are found in the Fables of Æsop and others, the "Pilgrim's Progress," the Parables of the Old and New Testaments (see § 374).

(3) **Novels,** forming by far the largest proportion of fictional works, deal with the common experiences of everyday life, more or less idealised. Their merit depends mainly on (a) plot, (b) delineation of character, (c) brilliancy of style. This branch of literature is of comparatively recent growth.

As representatives of the past the names of Defoe, Richardson, Fielding, Jane Austen, Thackeray, Dickens, and R. L. Stevenson may be mentioned; in the present day names are numerous and merit varied.

(4) **Historical Novels.** In these, incidents of history form a sort of peg on which to hang the plot of the story. Events are often entirely turned and twisted to suit the tale; characters, scenes, and conversations which have no historical foundation are introduced. In this class of Fiction, Sir Walter Scott's Waverley Novels easily take the first place; the names of Bulwer Lytton and Harrison Ainsworth may also be mentioned.

V. Humour and Satire. Fiction of all kinds abounds in humour and satire; there are, however, certain works which have

practically no plot, and which are written almost entirely with the object of displaying either wit or satire or both combined, and these need to be placed in a class by themselves.

Humour, which is a peculiar way of looking at persons and things so that they provoke mirth, is exemplified by Sterne's "Tristram Shandy" and the "Sentimental Journey," the comedies of Goldsmith and Sheridan, Dickens' "Pickwick Papers," and at the present by the works of Mark Twain and Jerome K. Jerome.

Satire, which differs from humour in that it is intended to provoke ridicule, and so bring contempt on an object, is exemplified by the works of Swift, *e.g.* "The Tale of a Tub" (satirising the different branches of the Christian Faith), and the "Battle of the Books" (dealing with the controversy between Classical and Modern Literature).

VI. Reflection. Under this heading may be included all works which deal with thought rather than with fact. Works on philosophy, religion, politics, education, criticism—in so far as they are not merely technical in their aim or mode of treatment—belong to this class. In such works much depends on the writer's style; it must be forcible and clear to be convincing; the language and illustrations must be beautiful and appropriate to evoke interest. One of the most important types of this class is the Essay.

Examples of Reflective works are Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution," Hooker's "Ecclesiastical Polity," Milton's "Areopagitica," the Essays of Bacon, Dryden, Macaulay, Carlyle; Lowell's "My Study Windows" and "The English Poets," Browne's "Religio Medici," *The Spectator* papers, and many excellent contemporary collections.

394. JOURNALISM—Amid the very varied literary productions of the present day, there are many which, as has been remarked, do not exactly fit any of these classes, and many also which cover the scope of several. We may instance one very important department of the latter nature, *viz.* Journalism. There we find *History*—of the past in biographies and in allusions and references, of the present everywhere. *Description* finds a place in articles on scenery or customs at home and abroad. The leading articles of a newspaper, and many of the articles of a magazine, are *Essays*

avowed or disguised, treating of reflective subjects of all types. Certain periodicals deal almost entirely with *Humour* and *Satire* (e.g. *Punch*). *Fiction* finds its place in magazines and in short stories in many journals.

Technical work has its own special organs (e.g. *Nature*, *Engineering*, *The Lancet*), and also finds a place in both newspaper and magazine. The prose drama often contains fiction, history, and humour.

395. POETRY—Up to the present our consideration of the English language has been based — except where otherwise specified—on *prose* written by the best authors of the language. Prose necessarily forms the standard by which a language must be regulated, since poetry is not only governed by special rules but also admits of many irregularities often included under the term “poetic licence.” Before proceeding, therefore, to a classification of poetry, it will be convenient to consider what are the special characteristics of poetry which distinguish it from prose, and by what laws it is governed.

At the outset we may divide the characteristics peculiar to poetry into two main classes, according as they pertain to—

- (1) **Form**—the outward appearance and arrangement of poetry.
- (2) **Diction**—its words, constructions, and manner.

We shall deal with **Form** first.

396. PROSODY is that part of our subject which deals with the rules governing the **form** of poetry.

The beauty of poetry as a work of art, apart from its matter, depends on the music, harmony, or **Rhythm** of its language. It may be noted that the excellence of the prose of our greatest writers is due, to some extent, to its effect on the *ear*. Hence rhythm is not confined entirely to poetry.

In poetry, however, the rhythm must be **regular**. This is effected in English poetry by the recurrence of pauses and of emphatic or accented syllables at regular intervals.

Metre is the mechanical arrangement of the accents and pauses in poetry. It has been called “rhythm reduced to law.” We shall now examine the metre of various forms of poetry.

397. PARTS OF A POEM—

(1) **Verse or Line.** Every poem is divided into *verses* (commonly called *lines*). A verse consists of a combination of syllables which occurs sufficiently regularly to be recognised as a separate element. Such verses are written or printed in separate lines, each beginning with a capital letter—hence the second name “line.”

(2) **Stanza.** In some poems such verses are arranged in regular sets of from two to fourteen lines each, called *stanzas*. These are often popularly known as “verses.”

The commonest stanzas are the **couplet** and the **quatrain**, containing two and four lines respectively.

(3) **Foot.** Every line is further divisible into a certain number of *feet*, and each foot into syllables. The number of feet in a line depends on the number of accented syllables it contains; the rule being that each foot contains one and only one accented syllable, together with one or more unaccented syllables.

398. KINDS OF FEET—The metrical foot admits of variation according to the relative positions of the accented and unaccented syllables. The various kinds of feet are named and marked after the manner of Classical Prosody, although the latter is based on *quantity*, not on *accent*. The following are the feet used in English poetry, in the order of their importance:—

Iambus—an unaccented syllable followed by an accented syllable (˘ ˊ). Examples: dēlight, rēduce, āpart.

Trochee—the reverse of an iambus (ˊ ˘). Examples: bēauty, hāppy, nōtice.

Anapaest—two unaccented syllables followed by an accented (˘ ˘ ˊ). Examples: rēāppoint, ĩnterrupt.

Dactyl—an accented followed by two unaccented syllables (ˊ ˘ ˘). Examples: sēparate, hāppily.

Amphibrach (rare)—an accented between two unaccented syllables (˘ ˊ ˘). Examples: āppointment, rēvision.

For the sake of clearness we have made each foot correspond with a *word* in the above examples; but this of course is not

necessary. Thus *tŏ the séa* forms a anapaest ; whilst *rétri | bútiŏn* forms two trochees.

399. KINDS OF LINE—A line may consist of any *number* of feet ; usually (but not always) these feet are of the same *kind*. Further, whatever kind (iambic, trochaic, etc.) is chosen, generally prevails throughout the whole poem.

According as a line contains one, two . . . seven feet, it is called a monometer, dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, pentameter hexameter or heptameter. Of these the pentameter, tetrameter and trimeter are the most important in English poetry.

It is not necessary that all the lines in a particular poem should be of the same kind (*i.e.* contain the same number of feet) : thus we may have a quatrain consisting of lines of four and three feet alternately.

400. EXAMPLES OF IAMBIC METRES—As the iambic metres are the commonest in English poetry we give examples of these first of all.

Monometer : *Ěxcuse*

Mŷ muse.

Dimeter : *Oŭr spŏil | iŝ wŏn*

Oŭr tásk | iŝ dŏne.

Trimeter : *Thĕn I'íl | yŏŭr ál | tars strĕw*

With ró | sĕs swĕet | and nĕw.

Tetrameter : *The Chĭef | ĩn sí | lĕnce strŏde | bĕfŏre*

And reáched | thát tŏr | ren't's sŏund | ĩng shŏre.

Pentameter : *Hŏpe sprĭngs | ětĕr | nál ĩn | thĕ hŭm | an brĕast*

Mán nĕv | ěr ís | búť ál | wáys tŏ | bĕ blĕst.

Hexameter : *Thĕŷ love | and dŏte | ŏn : cáll | hĭm bŏun | teŏus*

Búck | ĩnghám.

Heptameter : *Āttĕnd | álł yĕ | whŏ líst | tŏ hĕár | ŏŭr nŏ | blĕ*

Ēng | lánd's práise.

Examples of other metres.

Anapaestic Dimeter : Fróm ĭts sǒurc | ěs whĭch wĕll
 ĭn the tǎrn | ǒn the fĕll.

Trochaic Trimeter : Ónward | Chrĭstĭān | sǒldĭĕrs
 Mǎrchĭng | ǎs tǒ | wǎr.

Anapaestic Tetrameter :

Bŭt the ǎng | ěl ǒf dĕǎth | sprĕǎd ĥĭs wĭngs | ǒ'er the blǎst
 And ĥĕ breǎthed | ǒn the fǎce | ǒf the fǒe | ǎs ĥĕ pǎssed.

Dactylic Tetrameter :

Sǒrĕly thŷ | lĭttĕl ǒne | drǎgs bŷ theĕ | bǎrefǒǒtĕd.

Amphibrachic Tetrameter and Trimeter.

Aĥ Chlórĭs | 'tĭs tĭme tǒ | dĭsǎrm yǒur | brĭght ĕyes
 And lǎy bŷ | thǒse tĕrrĭ | blĕ glǎncĕs.

NOTE.—The above amphibrachic measure may also be regarded as an anapaestic measure with an unaccented syllable missing in the first foot of each line and an additional unaccented syllable at the end of the second line thus :—

Aĥ Chlór | ĭs 'tĭs tĭme | tǒ dĭsǎrm | yǒur brĭght ĕyes
 And lǎy | bŷ thǒse tĕr | rĭblĕ glǎnc(ĕs.)

401. IRREGULARITY—Lines are often irregular. This may be due to two causes :—

(1) The lines may be *mixed*, *i.e.* may contain different kinds of feet : *e.g.* anapaests and iambs occur in :—

Whĕn the rǒck | wǎs ĥĭd | bŷ the sŭrg | ĕ's swĕll
 The mǎr | ĭnĕrs ĥĕǎrd | the mǒrn | ĭng bĕll.

(2) They may contain extra syllables or have syllables omitted. Such lines are called Hypermetric and Catalectic respectively.

Examples :—

(a) Áll thǎt | glĭstĕrs | ĭs nǒt | gǒld
 Óftĕn | ĥǎve yǒu | ĥĕǎrd thǎt | tǒld

This is a Catalectic Trochaic Tetrameter.

(b) 'T hás dóne | ůpon | thě prém | išés | búť júst | íčē
 Bŭť thósē | thát sóught | ít Í | cóuld wísh | mŏre
 Chríst | íans.

This is a Hypermetric Iambic Pentameter.

When the odd syllable is *accented* as in (a), the line is catalectic ; when *unaccented* as in (b), it is hypermetric.

402. THE CAESURA — As we read a line of poetry—especially one which contains four feet or more, our voice often makes a *natural pause*. This pause is called the Caesura ; it often corresponds with the grammatical pause as marked by a comma, full stop, or colon. Its position in the line varies ; even a long line sometimes contains no Caesura at all.

Example :—

I have done nothing||but in care of thee,
 Of thee, my dear one,||thee my daughter,||who
 Art ignorant of what thou art,||nought knowing
 Of whence I am,||nor that I am more better
 Than Prospero,||master of a full poor cell,
 And thy no greater father.

The second line in this passage appears to contain a second caesura after *daughter*.

403. SCANSION is the process of dividing lines into feet and syllables, marking the accents and caesura and describing the lines thus marked. Some lines, especially those which contain amphibrachs, may be scanned in more than one way with slightly different effect (see § 400). When any doubt exists, the method of division must depend on what will best suit the accompanying lines.

Examples :—

(1) Crómŭell | Ĩ chárge | theě || flíng | áway | ámbí | tíon.

An iambic pentameter : hypermetric, and with the first foot a Trochee.

(2) Fŏr mén | mǎy cóme | ǎnd mén | mǎy gó
 Bŭť Í | gŏ ón | fŏr év | ěr.

Alternate iambic tetrameter and trimeter (the latter hypermetric).

(3) Wóuld ít mǐght | tárrý líke | hís, || the | béautífŭl | búild
 ǐng ǒf | mǐne

Thís wích mý | kǎys ín ǎ | crówd || prěssed ǎnd ín |
 pórtúned tǒ | ráise!

Dactylic hexameter; third and sixth feet catalectic.

404. RHYME — In addition to *metre*, an essential factor, certain other artistic devices are frequently employed in poetry. The chief of these is **rhyme** (more correctly *rime*) which is the recurrence of the same sound at the ends of two or more lines not necessarily consecutive. In order that two syllables may rhyme the sounds of the *vowel* and consonants following must be the same, but the *consonants* preceding each vowel sound must be different; thus *tell* rhymes with *sell* (same vowels); *foe* with *glow* (same vowel sound). But *grow* does not rhyme with *brow*, because the vowel sound is different; and *send* does not rhyme with *ascend*, because the consonants preceding are of the same sound. The above examples *tell, sell*: *foe, glow*: are called **single** or **masculine** rhymes.

In a **double** or **feminine** rhyme, the last syllables are of identical nature, and it is the last but one which rhymes: *e.g. clearest and nearest, meeting and fleeting*.

The rhyme may even be thrown back one syllable more, when it is called a **triple** rhyme: *e.g. wandering, pondering*.

405. VERSIFICATION — Poems which are built up in stanzas of any kind almost invariably rhyme.

A frequent form of the rhymed couplet is the iambic pentameter. This is known as the **Heroic Couplet**.

Example: Hope springs eternal in the human breast
 Man never is, but always to be blest.

A frequent form of quatrain is the alternate iambic tetrameter and trimeter, with alternate rhymes. This is known as **Common Metre**.

Example :—

Once more the gate behind me falls :
Once more before my face
I see the moulder'd abbey walls
That stand within the chase.

Mention may here be made of **The Sonnet**, a curious little poem consisting of a single stanza of 14 lines (usually iambic pentameters), with only four or five rhymes.

As an example we will consider Milton's "Sonnet on his Blindness."

When I consider how my light is spent	<i>a</i>
Ere half my days in this dark world and wide,	<i>b</i>
And that one talent which is death to hide,	<i>b</i>
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent	<i>a</i>
To serve therewith my Maker, and present	<i>a</i>
My true account, lest He returning chide ;	<i>b</i>
" Doth God exact day-labour, light denied ? "	<i>b</i>
I fondly ask : but Patience, to prevent	<i>a</i>
That murmur, soon replies : " God doth not need	<i>c</i>
Either man's work, or His own gifts ; who best	<i>d</i>
Bear His mild yoke, they serve Him best : His state	<i>e</i>
Is kingly ; thousands at His bidding speed,	<i>c</i>
And post o'er land and ocean without rest ;	<i>d</i>
They also serve who only stand and wait."	<i>e</i>

If we look at the different rhyme-sounds we note that the scheme of rhymes of the above is *a b b a | a b b a | c d e | c d e*. There are other types of Sonnet in which the rhymes are arranged differently.

Unrhymed Poetry is known as **Blank Verse**. The term is applied especially to unrhymed iambic pentameters—in which the works of Shakspeare and Milton are for the most part written.

Example :—

The quality of mercy is not strained :
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the earth beneath ; it is twice blessed ;
It blesseth him that gives and him that takes.

406. ALLITERATION — An effect somewhat opposite to that of rhyme is obtained by *Alliteration*, which consists in the recurrence of the same sound at the *beginning* of two or more accented syllables in the same line. The device formed the

main basis of Old English poetry, and occurred to a large extent in Middle English.

Example :—

In a somer seson when soft was the sonne,
I shope me in shroudes, a shepe as I were.

The alliterative letter in the first line is *s*, in the second *sh*. Shakspeare and Milton use it occasionally, and it is sometimes, though rarely, found even in modern poetry.

Examples :—

- (a) Fierce fiery warriors fought upon the clouds.
- (b) Of Cambalu, seat of Cathaian Can.
- (c) The sly slow hours shall not determinate
The dateless limit of thy dear exile.
- (d) Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.

c and *d* are examples of *Double Alliteration*; *c* is somewhat imperfect.

407. SUBJECT MATTER OF POETRY—It is obvious that all subjects of whatever nature, are suitable for treatment in prose; but there are limitations in the themes appropriate to poetry.

An engineering drawing may be, in its way, a work of art, yet it is not the sort of subject a painter would use for his brush. So it is with poetry. A treatise on science or other technical work in poetry would be absurd.

There are, then, certain commonplace subjects—we call them *prosaic*—which make no appeal to the imagination; and these are not fitted for an artistic treatment such as poetry should give. Attempts at poetic treatment of prosaic subjects may be found in the works of any fifth-rate poet of the present day; and even great poets have occasionally lapsed into the ridiculous by such attempts. Thus Dryden solemnly describes in poetry the symptoms of small-pox; and even Wordsworth (who of all poets was most successful in dealing with the simplest subjects artistically) descends to bathos in “The Idiot Boy” and “The Thorn.”

Certain mnemonic lines like—

Thirty days hath September,
April, June, and November, etc.,

cannot be justly called poetry at all.

408. POETIC DICTION — Just as the subject-matter of poetry is of a special nature, so is it with the *diction*. Wordsworth indeed at first stated that there should not be any difference between the language of prose and poetry; but he certainly did not illustrate the principle in the majority of his poems, and he was afterwards forced through outside criticism to modify his doctrine. It is perfectly true that to use a stilted and artificial diction, and to say a thing in a roundabout way merely to produce an extraordinary effect—as some of the eighteenth century writers did—is but to exchange good prose for bad poetry.

There are, however, certain differences between the diction of prose and of the poetry of the greatest writers in our language. These may be classified as follows:—

(1) The elimination from the domain of poetry of certain words and phrases which the artistic ear feels to be more or less prosaic or inartistic, either because of their sound or because of their meaning. Thus a poet hardly ever uses technical terms of any description, and he substitutes *swine* for *pig*, *wroth* for *angry*, etc.

(2) The use of archaic or uncommon words. Thus we find even in modern poetry such archaisms as:—

brand (=sword), helm and casque (=helmet), wight (=person), sooth (=truth), caitiff (=villain: originally, captive), peradventure, haply (=perhaps), eft (=again, after), asunder (=in two), reft (=deprived of), sware (=swore), brake (=broke), clomb (=climbed), foughten (=fought), thou, twain (=two), rathe (=early).

And the following are examples of uncommon and coined words frequently found in poetry:—

marge, mere, tarn, swain, steep (=hill), deep (=sea), gore, fane, sire, zephyr, damsel, liege, quest, vernal, sylvan, gelid, rapt, comely, unfriended, disedge. Nearly all these examples are from Tennyson.

(3) **Grammatical Licence.** Many of the rules of grammar laid down for prose composition are not strictly observed in poetry; indeed, several of the examples given for correction in previous chapters have been chosen from standard poetry. For a poet to say "There let him *lay*" (for *lie*) is rather beyond the limits

even of poetic licence ; in the following, examples of some of the common liberties—considered permissible—of standard poets are illustrated :—

(a) Use of one Part of Speech for another, particularly Adjective for Adverb :—

- (1) Thereat she suddenly laughed and *shrill*.
- (2) The *firm* connected bulwark seems to grow.
- (3) Young man, thou couldst not die more *honourable*.

(b) Past Tense for Past Participle :—

Then, Brutus, I have much *mistook* your passion.

(c) Use of the Reflexive Pronoun for Personal or vice versa :—

- (1) Where I will heal *me* of my grievous wound
- (2) To call it freedom when *themselves* are free.

(d) Peculiar uses of the Dative :—

- (1) He plucked *me* ope his doublet.
- (2) When and where likes *me* best.

(e) Pleonasm :—

- (1) I sit *me* down a pensive hour to spend
- (2) Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple *them* to thy soul with hoops of steel.

(f) Ellipsis :—

- (1) Surely a precious thing, one worthy ^ note,
Should then be lost.
- (2) Now man ^ to man, and steel ^ to steel,
A chieftain's vengeance thou shalt feel.

(4) **Change in Order.** For artistic effect, for emphasis, and also to suit the metre, the order of words in poetry may be varied almost indefinitely, provided that ambiguity does not result.

Examples :—

- (1) Then like a stormy sunlight smiled Geraint.
- (2) Rose a nurse of ninety years.
- (3) His eyes he opened and beheld a field.
- (4) "Deafer," said the blameless king,
"Gawain, and blinder unto holy things
Hope not to make thyself by idle vows."

Further examples will be found in Chapter xvi.

(5) **Use of Figures of Speech.** These are used with much

greater freedom in poetry than in prose. Several examples from poetry have already been given (Chapter xxx.).

(6) **Use of Ornament.** The whole art of poetry, setting aside the formal rules of metre which govern it, consists in the beauty of the "word-painting," as we may style it.

409. POETICAL PROSE—We have considered in what respects poetry differs from prose. We may now ask, is there any form of composition that lies between the two? There certainly is a considerable and ever-increasing amount of prosaic poetry which might well be consigned to the flames. But is there such a thing as poetical prose? The answer is in the affirmative. We have already said that much of the best of our prose is rhythmical to a certain extent (§ 396). This is especially the case with certain truly literary translations of poetry. Certain parts of the Bible, *e.g.* The Psalms, portions of Isaiah, the song of Deborah, the Song of Solomon, are truly poetical, although translated in the form of prose.

410. CLASSIFICATION OF POETRY—It would be possible to classify poetry under the same headings as were adopted for the classification of prose. Owing, however, to the different nature of poetry, it will be found more convenient to group poems as:—

I. Epic, II. Drama, III. Narrative, IV. Satire, V. Lyric, VI. Elegy, VII. Descriptive (including Pastoral), VIII. Miscellaneous.

I. The Epic ranks with the Drama as the highest of all forms of poetry. The subject of the Epic must be a great and complex action, historical or legendary. The heroes must be great persons with high ideals, and the style of the poem must be correspondingly dignified. The poem, which is usually of great length, is developed by a mixture of the dramatic and narrative elements.

English possesses very few epics. One of the very earliest of English poems, *Beowulf*, is an Epic; but by far the greatest in the language is Milton's "*Paradise Lost*."

II. The Drama is a form of poetry dealing with action. In it a story of some sort is worked out by means of a series of con-

versations, intended to be accompanied by appropriate actions, for which stage directions are sometimes given.

The chief kinds of English Drama are:—

(1) *Tragedy*, in which the incidents are of a serious and often terrible nature, culminating in the destruction and death of the principal characters.

Shakspeare's "Othello," "Macbeth," "Hamlet" and "King Lear" are the four greatest tragedies in our literature. Mention may also be made of Marlowe's "Dr Faustus," Webster's "Duchess of Malfi" and Ford's "Broken Heart."

(2) *Comedy*, in which the incidents are of a lighter nature, giving scope for jest, tricks, and humour, and also for love. Though events of a serious nature are not precluded, the end is generally satisfactory to all concerned. Shakspeare's Comedies take the first rank; to them may be added Jonson's "Epicene" and "Every Man in his Humour." Large portions of comedy, sometimes even the whole, are written in prose.

When a comedy degenerates into a mere display of sparkling humour without much plot, it becomes a *Farce*. Shakspeare's "Comedy of Errors" is practically a Farce.

(3) *Tragi-comedy*. When a play has neither the great amount of wit nor the light badinage of a comedy, but possesses some situations which, though they might well end tragically, actually do not, it is often termed a Tragi-comedy.

Shakspeare's "Merchant of Venice" and "Measure for Measure," though usually classed as Comedies, are of this nature.

Here also may be placed what are sometimes known as *Romances*, plays of much the same nature as an ordinary novel: e.g. Shakspeare's "Tempest," "Winter's Tale," and "Cymbeline."

(4) *History*, in which the plot is based upon, and the principal characters are drawn from, history. Frequently, of course, such plays may be comic and tragic as opportunity offers.

The most notable examples are: Shakspeare's Roman and English historical plays. Jonson's "Cataline and Sejanus," Marlowe's "Edward II.," Tennyson's "Becket."

III. The Narrative. This class of poetry corresponds very nearly to the fiction class of prose (§ 393). It includes:—

(1) Historical poems, such as Drayton's "Barons' Wars," Dryden's "Annus Mirabilis," Macaulay's "Lays" and "Armada," Gray's "Bard."

(2) Tales, such as Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," Tennyson's "Idylls of the King" and "Enoch Arden," Byron's "Childe Harold," Scott's "Marmion," Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner."

(3) Allegories, such as Spenser's "Faerie Queene," Langland's "Piers Plowman."

IV. The Satire (see § 393). Examples are: Butler's "Hudibras," Dryden's "Absalom and Ahitophel" and "Hind and Panther," Byron's "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers."

Under this heading, too, may be included what are sometimes called *mock-heroic poems*, written as though they were romances, but full of satire and humour: e.g. Pope's "Rape of the Lock."

V. The Lyric, as its name implies, was a piece originally, in early times, accompanied by the music of the lyre. Hence lyrical poems are of the nature of songs—fresh and spontaneous utterances. They are short poems dealing for the most part with Religion, Love, Patriotism, and War. A collection of the most beautiful lyrics in the language will be found in "The Golden Treasury."

Of *Religious Lyrics* may be mentioned the poems of Herbert (called The Temple), of Crashaw, and of Keble (called the Christian Year). Many hymns, too, are of this nature.

Of *Love Lyrics* the most exquisite in the language are probably those of Herrick; many of his contemporaries, also, produced some beautiful love-songs.

Patriotic Lyrics are exemplified by many of Wordsworth's Sonnets, the poems of Burns and Scott, and some of those of Tennyson and Rudyard Kipling.

VI. The Elegy, in its simplest form, is a poem mourning the loss of some friend. The subject itself, however, frequently suggests further solemn reflections to which the poet gives expression.

Chief among the English Elegies are Milton's "Lycidas," Shelley's "Adonais," Tennyson's "In Memoriam," Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard." Much of the oldest English poetry is elegiac in nature.

VII. Descriptive and Pastoral Poetry. Much beautiful poetry has been written concerning nature and man as influenced by

nature. Sometimes this takes the form of a description of a shepherd's life and feelings; it is then called *Pastoral* poetry.

Of general Descriptive poetry examples are Denham's "Cooper's Hill," and many of the poems of Wordsworth and Burns; of Pastoral poems, Spenser's "Shepherd's Calendar," Browne's "Britannia's Pastorals."

VIII. There are many poems which do not appear to belong to any of the foregoing classes. Some are purely poems of reflection and imagination, as Wordsworth's Odes to Immortality and Duty, and much of Shelley's and Keats' poetry. Some, as those of Browning, are dramatic in spirit, narrative in form. We can only include such poems under the rather unsatisfactory term *miscellaneous*.

411. In conclusion, let us ask ourselves wherein lies the difference between the masterpieces of English Literature and the composition of the average educated man? Apart from all rules of grammar and composition, there is a subtle difference which can be felt by anyone who has wandered through even the borderland of English literature—a difference more easily felt than explained or analysed. Briefly, it depends on **Style** in its broadest sense. Simplicity and yet not childishness, dignity without affectation, correctness but not pedantry, grace without insipidity, ornament and music without artificiality, force but not harshness, humour without the appearance of foolishness—these are some of the qualities of our greatest authors.

And above all, and over all, is the presiding spirit of genius, which besides helping its fortunate possessor to attain these qualities, endows him with a wider, deeper, broader aspect of life and nature. The earnest student who reads more and more of the best, will obtain at last a glimpse of perfection, even though he may not see it face to face with all its features clearly outlined. His composition will be gradually but surely illumined with something of the reflected glory of the great masterpieces of literature; and, fully conscious of all he owes to his masters and of his own shortcomings, he may turn to his work and echo with a proud humility the words of Touchstone: "A poor thing, my lord, but mine own."

APPENDIX

ON THE

STYLE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DIFFERENT PERIODS OF ENGLISH LITERATURE, SUITABLE CHIEFLY FOR THE SCOTCH LEAVING CERTIFICATE AND ENGLISH PUPIL TEACHERS' PRELIMINARY CERTIFICATE EXAMINATIONS, AND ALSO FOR THE LONDON UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION EXAMINATION UNDER THE NEW REGULATIONS. A MORE DETAILED TREATMENT OF THIS SUBJECT IS GIVEN IN "ENGLISH LITERATURE" BY THE SAME AUTHOR.

412. In the course of a few pages no attempt can be made to indicate the individual style and characteristics of even the masters of our literature. A general idea of the gradual development of English Prose and Poetry may, however, be given, with special reference to such authors as seem typical of the age in which they lived, together with the names of the greatest authors in each period, and a selection of such of their works as seem most useful for the student to read. A few representative specimens of the different periods will be added. It must be clearly understood that, after all, the only true method of understanding the spirit of any period or the characteristics of any author, is to read the best work of that period or author; dogmatic generalisations, without first-hand acquaintance with the actual writings, serve only to give a false, or at best, a very restricted and vague notion of their qualities. Excellent criticisms of, and selections from, the best poets and prose writers in our language are to be found in Ward's "English Poets" (4 vols.) and Craik's "English Prose" (5 vols.), which should be consulted, if accessible to the student.

413. EARLY ENGLISH—The earliest English literature up to 1350 needs but a brief notice, since the language in which it

is written is far removed from modern English in grammar, vocabulary, and style. See §§ 7, 8, 15. The majority of prose works are translations or adaptations from the classics, or religious homilies. The scheme of versification of the poetry—which is frequently of a religious and elegiac nature—is based on alliteration (§ 406).

414. MIDDLE ENGLISH.

With Chaucer, who is typical of this period, English, as we know it, may be said to begin. His vocabulary contains many words now obsolete, and the grammar is not entirely freed from inflection; yet modern methods of construction are already apparent, and the literature of that period may be read without great difficulty by the student.

POETRY—The methods and general framework of the poetry are largely influenced by the French and Italian romances of the day, yet the subject is, as a rule, drawn from contemporary English life. Narrative poetry, often intermingled with allegory, is the favourite form of composition. The style is simple and ingenuous; and the references to nature in her sunniest moods—the May morning, the birds, the flowers—which permeate the poetry of Chaucer, are as fresh and unaffected as are his character studies and his descriptive sketches of medieval life. Rhyme takes the place of alliteration, the favourite line being the iambic pentameter. By the beauty and melody of his verse, Chaucer showed how effective the new English tongue could be as a vehicle for poetry and art. Gower, Occleve, Lydgate and other English poets followed Chaucer's methods, but are as a rule much inferior to the master; the Scotch poets James I., Henryson, Dunbar, and Douglas are, however, worthy disciples.

Works recommended: Chaucer's *Prologue to the Canterbury Tales*, *The Knight's Tale*, and some of his shorter poems; and, if accessible, James I.'s *The King's Quair*, and Dunbar's *The Thrissill and the Rois* or *The Goldyn Targe*.

415. PROSE—The prose of Chaucer's time is comparatively unimportant; it was usually modelled on Latin prose, and tended to a monotonous level with little or no individuality.

A century later, however, when poetry had nearly died out, a

new era opened with **Malory**, whose "*Morte d'Arthur*" was one of the earliest books to be printed. His prose may be considered as the complement of the poetry of Chaucer. His imagination, steeped in the realms of medieval chivalry, is perfectly matched by his style—simple yet effective, with a command of rhythm and euphony almost Elizabethan. His words are carefully chosen, and many of his own phrases now form part of the idiom of the language.

Lord Berners' translation of Froissart marks the highest point yet reached in English prose. His style, like that of Malory, is simple, yet full of unconscious art and grace, and his blending of the Teutonic and Romanic elements of our language is one of his finest characteristics. With his scholarly learning and his knowledge of court and society, he was in perfect sympathy with his original.

Sir Thomas More, whose "*Utopia*" was written in Latin, ranks, by his "*History of Edward V.*," as a master of English prose. His style is simple and comparatively modern; though occasionally a little cumbrous owing to Latin constructions, it combines, for the most part, his Latin scholarship with his idiomatic—almost conversational—English.

Works recommended: part of Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*; part of Berners' *Froissart* (if accessible), and More's *History of Edward V.*

416. ELIZABETHAN ENGLISH.

POETRY—Many qualities are common to the poets—indeed to all the writers—of this age: learning, particularly in literature, ancient and modern, due to the Renaissance and to the spread of printing; a wider knowledge of the world, the outcome of recent discoveries and travels; a national feeling, the result of the good government and settlement under the Tudors; freedom and liberty, and in some instances the best aspects of Puritanism, products largely of the Reformation; a new romance mainly derived from the courtly chivalry of the age; a wealth of imagination and a spirit of inquiry; purity of diction and sweetness of versification. The poetry of the age is not a sudden growth but the result of much experiment; new forms—the

Lyric, the Sonnet, the Pastoral, the Epic, the Masque, the Ode and, greatest of all, the Drama—appear for the first time; new metres, *e.g.* Blank Verse and the Spenserian stanza, are used. The subject of the poetry is nearly always Man as influenced inwardly by his passions and outwardly by Nature.

Spenser is the greatest poet (excluding the dramatists) of his age. In a sense, he is not entirely typical, since his diction is somewhat archaic—a conscious imitation of medieval English, particularly of Chaucer. He sometimes overdoes alliteration; he deliberately uses obsolete words; he takes liberties with the parts of speech and with constructions. Yet in spirit and power he is entirely Elizabethan and his works had a lasting influence on his successors. His favourite metre—the Spenserian stanza—consists of nine iambic lines, rhyming a b a b b c d c d, the first eight being pentameters, the last a hexameter; and he handles this metre with such skill that it never becomes monotonous. The charm of his poetry lies in the vividness of his descriptions, the graceful beauty of his imagery, the perfect harmony and ornament of his expression, and a tone of purity and delicacy not altogether general in his age.

Shakspeare, the type of all that is greatest in English, if not in the world's poetry, stands head and shoulders above many writers of high rank in the Drama. No adequate description can here be given of one whose work ought to be familiar to all. Mention may be made of his perfection of Blank Verse (introduced into the Drama by *Marlowe*); his wonderful ability to "hold the mirror up to nature"; his insight into human nature and the consequent life-like presentations of heroes and heroines of all classes, and the development of their characters in ever-varying moods and situations; his love of all that is beautiful and noble; his humour and pathos; the diversity and breadth of his knowledge; his development of the *technique* of the Drama; and, most of all, his unique command of language and versification.

Milton, though in date a little later, belongs in spirit to the Elizabethans. He is the creator of the English Epic, and the master, as far as pure poetry is concerned, of Blank Verse. He also handled the Elegy, Ode, Sonnet, and Masque in a manner

hitherto unknown. He is in every respect a great artist; his style—stately, almost sublime—is eminently suited to his subject. His language is always polished and dignified; though he sometimes coins words and constructions direct from Latin, they generally seem in keeping with the majestic rhythm of his verse. Probably as a result of his deep Puritanism, he is lacking in the humour and broad-mindedness of Shakspeare; yet in imagination and grace he is his equal, and in purity of thought and tone he is superior even to Spenser. His scholarship represents the zenith of the Renaissance spirit in English literature.

Herrick is a type of the lyrical poets of the latter part of this period. His poems are chiefly light, graceful love-songs, written in all kinds of metre, without much depth of thought, but with an infinite charm, sometimes gay, sometimes pathetic, that has given them a place among the gems of our literature. They show to some extent the influence, without, as a rule, the worst features, of Euphuism.

Works recommended in Drama: . Shakspeare's *Julius Cæsar* (as a type of Roman Histories), *Henry V.* or *Richard II.* (for English Histories), *The Merchant of Venice* and *As You Like It* or *Twelfth Night* (for Comedies), *Hamlet* or *Macbeth* (for Tragedies); if possible, Marlowe's *Dr Faustus* (as the best example of Drama before Shakspeare), Ben Jonson's *Epicene* or *Every Man in his Humour* (as contemporary Drama), Webster's *Duchess of Malfi* (as later, and showing signs of decadence).

Works recommended in other poetry: Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, Book I.; some of Sidney's and Shakspeare's *Sonnets*; Milton's *Paradise Lost* (one book) and *Lycidas* or *Comus*; some of the lyrical poetry of Herrick and his school, such as may be found in *The Golden Treasury*.

417. PROSE—The prose of this period is mainly tentative and imperfect; there are, however, two marked tendencies in opposite directions.

(1) *The Latinic Style*. **Ascham** wrote correct but featureless English. He found it, as he says, easier to write Latin than English, and, as a consequence, his English is very much like literally translated Latin.

Hooker represents the highest point in this school of prose. He is a really great writer; his work is deeply thoughtful and logical, and his style is polished and ornate, rising at times to splendid outbursts of oratory. To modern readers, his sentences

are often too long and his digressions from the main point tedious; he frequently uses curious constructions and changes the natural order of words, in the manner of Latin.

(2) *The Euphuistic Style.* **Lyly**, in his *Euphues*, invented a style of his own, which had a considerable influence on his contemporaries. He is essentially a cultured court writer, full of affectations and quaintness, with a certain amount of wit of the showy type. He had almost a mania for similes, which he strings together in lists, drawn from the virtues of animals, plants, precious stones, and uncommon objects; he employed alliteration till it became wearisome; he made frequent use of antithesis, balancing phrases against one another in a very unreal and artificial manner. Yet, putting aside his eccentricities, his English is homely and plain, and some credit is due to him for striking out a new line in English prose.

Bacon marks the beginning of a new style, though he thought little of English as a literary instrument. His style is well suited to his shrewd and logical thought. His phraseology is far more modern than that of any of his predecessors; his sentences are short and terse, full of matter, yet seldom obscure. He has some of the dignity of the Latinic style and some of the buoyancy of the Euphuistic, yet the shortcomings of these are never visible in his work, unless it be, perhaps, a fondness for antithesis.

Works recommended: a portion of Lyly's *Euphues*, one book of Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity*, a few of Bacon's *Essays* and *The New Atlantis*, Milton's *Areopagitica*, and the *Bible*.

418. THE RESTORATION PERIOD.

POETRY—After 1630, the freshness and naturalness of spirit, combined with the fervour and imaginative genius of the great Elizabethans, gradually faded away. In its place we find artificial conceits, far-fetched comparisons, and bombastic language—products largely of the worst features of Euphuism; and further, a lack of restraint in the use of metre. The consequence of such poetry was a complete reaction. An attempt was made to introduce a more correct and critical spirit into poetry and to lay down certain rules of art. Although the poetry as a result became more mechanical, the genius of Dryden and Pope pre-

vented it from becoming merely artificial, and showed that greater finish of versification and conscious polish and ornament could produce a real work of art.

The subjects of poetry also changed. Instead of the absorbing interests in man and his feelings and nature we find a critical spirit introducing such elements as satire, philosophy, politics, and metaphysics. We may also observe an anti-Puritan manner—less reverent, more morally lax, more comic in its nature—influenced to some extent by French manners and ideals.

Dryden is one of the greatest of English satirists. His earlier work consisted mainly of dramas, which bear something of the influence of the French school, and in which we may see the gradual development of the *heroic couplet* (§ 405) over which he attained perfect command, although he also uses blank verse and other measures at times. It is by his satire, full of pungent, sparkling wit, that he ranks as perhaps the greatest poet from the Restoration to Wordsworth. He purified the style of English, and polished and reduced to order its verse; he substituted clear and practical common-sense for the aimless meanderings of his predecessors.

Pope wrote chiefly *didactic satire*, i.e. satire having behind it an idea of moral instruction. The heroic couplet is his chief form of verse; and he brought it to a degree of perfection never surpassed before or since. He is a true artist; he seems to know by intuition exactly the right words or phrases to employ, the amount of ornamentation necessary and suitable; his skill in rhyme is very great; and his wit and sarcasm are brilliant.

Works recommended: one of Dryden's longer poems, e.g., *Absalom and Achitophel*, or *The Hind and the Panther*; Pope's *Essay on Man* (philosophical) or *The Rape of the Lock* (mock heroic); part of Butler's *Hudibras* (humorous satire); also Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* and *The Bard*; and Goldsmith's *Traveller* (these three not altogether characteristic of the age).

419. PROSE—The age is essentially an age of reason and criticism, subjects essentially suited to prose.

Dryden may be termed the Father of Modern English Prose. He first taught the use of prose not merely for didactic purposes but as a critical and at the same time an artistic vehicle of

literature. He forsook both the Latinic and the Euphuistic styles of the past, and introduced a new style, partly his own, partly modelled on the French; he appeals directly, simply, and forcibly to the reader, preferring the short sentence and using the right word and phrase in the right place; he is free from any tricks or affectation, and without any conscious attempt at mere ornamentation.

The good work begun by Dryden was carried to an even greater degree of perfection by **Addison**, whose natural, almost colloquial elegance is well matched by his good sense and his urbanity. His wit and polite irony are of the graceful rather than the boisterous type. His style represents the highest literary art to which prose had yet attained; he seems to have consciously realised that prose may be made just as beautiful and artistic as poetry. Much the same may be said of **Steele**.

Defoe prepared the way for the NOVEL, the real fathers of which are **Richardson** and **Fielding**.

Works recommended: some of Dryden's *Essays*, Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield* (a form of Novel), Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* or *Tale of a Tub* (satire), Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, part of the *Spectator Papers* (Addison and Steele).

420. FROM 1780 TO 1830.

POETRY—The followers of Pope soon brought poetry into ridicule by writing in a false artificial style without any poetic fire or real feeling; hence their poetry became as unreal in an opposite direction, as that of the poets before the Restoration. A new school of poetry began with Wordsworth and Coleridge, in which nature and the relation of man to it became the absorbing theme.

Wordsworth may be taken as the type of one aspect. To him Nature was a living personality, her relation to mankind the most intimate and loving. The French Revolution and its results awoke in him a spirit of liberty and patriotism which pervades his later work. His style is simple and his subjects ordinary and very little idealised; indeed, in these respects he made as little difference as possible between prose and poetry, sometimes expressing himself in almost too matter-of-fact a manner. His

metre is free and varied, and at times very beautiful ; his language is pure and graceful.

Coleridge, with all Wordsworth's reverence for nature, viewed it from a slightly different standpoint. He took as his theme the romantic—the uncommon, unfamiliar, and therefore often idealised aspect of nature and man.

Shelley is supreme on the imaginative side. He is the poet of the ideal, the unattainable. He looked on nature as the real home of man, the mother to whom man ought always to appeal and to whom every standard should be referred. His poems breathe a spirit of rebellion against the world and against orthodox forms of belief. A wonderful sense of the music of words and a rich colouring of expression, distinguishes his poetry from all others, except perhaps that of Keats.

Burns wrote of the manners and sentiments of homely human nature of the poorer classes amongst whom he lived. His love songs and ballads, full of passion and often of pathos, recall those of Herrick : while his love of nature—the beasts of the field, the flowers, the seasons—reminds us of Wordsworth. His measures are mainly those of his favourite poets of the past generation.

Works recommended : Wordsworth's *Ode to Immortality*, *Michael*, some *Sonnets* ; Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner*, and *Christabel* ; Shelley's *Adonais* and *Prometheus Unbound* ; Keats' *St Agnes' Eve* and *Hyperion* ; Byron's *Childe Harold* or *Manfred* ; Scott's *Marmion* or *Lay of the Last Minstrel* ; some of Burns' *Poems*.

421. PROSE — Prose had practically reached its highest development before this date. There remained for it to be adapted in style and manner to the endless variety of subjects of modern times. We may note a certain loss of stateliness, due, perhaps, to the gradual development of the *journalistic* style, which must be terse and crisp, and which, to be impressive, often adopts mannerisms. With this feature, however, the earlier writers are almost untouched.

Scott raised the novel to a position of supreme importance in literature. His wonderful fidelity to the spirit of history was combined with a dramatic power of narration and a vividness in the description of the picturesque. His sentences are sometimes

irregular, even ungrammatical, occasionally unmusical ; his paragraphs often show signs of haste or carelessness ; but these infrequent lapses pass almost unnoticed in the general effect of his romances, in which everything seems natural and harmonious—a result due, in no small measure, to his perfect comprehension of, and sympathy with, his subject.

Works recommended : three or four of the *Waverley Novels* ; one of Jane Austen's novels, e.g., *Pride and Prejudice*, or *Sense and Sensibility* ; Southey's *Life of Nelson* ; Lamb's *Essays of Elia*.

422. SINCE 1830.

POETRY—**Tennyson** is remarkable for the breadth of range of his subjects and for his human sympathy ; to this latter is due his power of dealing with every phase of emotion in man. His simple unorthodox faith felt no opposition but rather confirmation in the discoveries of modern science ; and he welcomed progress and social reform, beautifying by his art all that appears sordid and prosaic in life. He is essentially a patriot, holding fast to the best ideals of English national life. His literary and artistic training were thorough. His verse is, in consequence, graceful and polished ; it is also almost as ornate and melodious as that of Keats. In his descriptions of natural scenery he is as accurate and sympathetic as Wordsworth. The measures, chiefly lyrical, which he employed with great success, are as varied as his subjects.

Browning introduces all subjects, ancient and modern, into his poetry : art, music, learning, paganism, early Christianity, love, and war, are found side by side. The chief aim of his poetry is to explain the purpose of life. His poetry is dramatic in spirit, but is couched in a lyrical form. His style is at times very rugged and his meaning often obscure. Some of his situations are weird yet not unreal, and many of his metrical attempts are decidedly peculiar.

Works recommended : Tennyson's *In Memoriam*, *Enoch Arden*, part of *Idylls of the King* ; Browning's *Rabbi Ben Ezra*, *The Last Ride Together*, and *The Boy and the Angel* ; also Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*.

423. PROSE—Among the multitudes of prose-writers of this

period only four can here be mentioned: two of the greatest writers on intellectual topics, and two of the greatest novelists.

Macaulay, the originator of the historical essay, is one of our greatest pictorial writers. He deals with the individual, not by himself, but in conjunction with the times in which he lived. His style is eloquent, full of energy, fluent and clear. He is fond of antithesis, and nearly always uses the short sentence, thereby obtaining vividness and brilliancy.

Carlyle deals with the ethical conduct of the individual and the political life of the community. His style is unfettered by—almost defiant of—any rules: contorted diction, Germanic compound adjectives, introduction of, or literal translation of foreign words, use of capital letters, dropping of conjunctions, pronouns, and verbs, are eccentricities to be found everywhere in his works. He has, however, a vigour of style, a novelty in the way of regarding persons and things, and a grasp of his subject, which mark him as a genius.

Dickens and **Thackeray** stand out pre-eminently as the greatest of English novelists. The former deals mainly with low and middle-class life in a cheery and sympathetic manner; his knowledge of the human heart, especially of the lower classes, and his wonderful fund of humour and his pathos, are to be found nowhere out of Shakspeare. The latter deals mainly with high life; his work is satirical, even cynical, without much of the humour, and without the sympathy of Dickens.

Works recommended: Macaulay's *Essay on Clive* or *Warren Hastings*; Carlyle's *Heroes and Hero-Worship* or *Sartor Resartus*; Dickens' *David Copperfield*, *Tale of Two Cities*, and others; Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, or *Pendennis*. Also the following: Ruskin's *Sesame and Lilies*; R. L. Stevenson's *Treasure Island* or *Kidnapped*; George Eliot's *Adam Bede* or *Felix Holt*; C. Brontë's *Jane Eyre* or *Shirley*.

SPECIMENS OF PROSE AND POETRY

424. In a few isolated passages it is impossible to show all the characteristics of the individual writers or even of their age; but the following passages have been chosen to illustrate, as far as possible, the qualities mentioned in the above paragraphs.

CHAUCER—*Prologue to the Canterbury Tales ; The Prioress.*

Full semely her wimple y-pinched was ;
 Her nose tretys ; her eyen grey as glass ;
 Her mouth full small, and thereto soft and red ;
 But sikerly she had a fair forehead.
 It was almost a spanne broad, I trow ;
 For hardily she was not undergrowe.
 Full fetys was her cloak, as I was ware.
 Of small coral about her arm she bare
 A pair of bedes gauded all with green ;
 And thereto hung a brooch of gold full sheen,
 On which was first y-writ a crowned A,
 And after " Amor vincit omnia."

MALORY—*Morte d'Arthur.*

Then Sir Bedivere took the king upon his back—and so went with him to the water side. And when they were at the water side, even fast by the bank, hoved a little barge, with many fair ladies in it, and among them all was a queen, and all they had black hoods and all they wept and shrieked when they saw King Arthur. " Now put me into the barge," said the king ; and so he did softly. And there received him three queens with great mourning ; and so they set him down and in one of their laps King Arthur laid his bead, and then that queen said " Ah ! dear brother ! Why have ye tarried so long from me ? " And so they rowed from the land.

SPENSER—*Faery Queene ; The Cave of Mammon.*

Both roof, and floor, and walls, were all of gold,
 But overgrown with dust and old decay,
 And hid in darkness, that none could behold
 The hue thereof ; for view of cheerful day
 Did never in that house itself display,
 But a faint shadow of uncertain light.
 Such as a lamp, whose life does fade away,
 Or as the moon, clothed with cloudy night,
 Does show to him that walks in fear and sad affright.

NOTE.—No specimens of Shakspeare or Milton are given, as they are doubtless familiar to all. One of Milton's Sonnets will be found on page 345. An illustrative passage from Hooker is given on page 215.

HERRICK—*To Anthea.*

Bid me to live and I will live
 Thy Protestant to be,
 Or bid me love and I will give
 A loving heart to thee.

Bid me despair and I'll despair
 Under that cypress tree,
 Or bid me die and I will dare
 E'en death, to die for thee.

Thou art my life, my love, my heart,
 The very eyes of me ;
 And hast command of every part
 To live and die for thee.

LYLY—*Euphues*.

(a) For as Amulius the cunning painter so portrayed Minerva, that which way so ever one cast his eye, she always beheld him, so hath Cupid so exquisitely drawn the image of Thirsus in my heart, that what way soever I glance, me thinketh he looketh stedfastly upon me.

(b) As by basil the scorpion is engendered and by the means of the same herb destroyed, so love which by time and fancy is bred in an idle head, is by time and fancy banished from the heart.

BACON—*Essay on Studies*.

Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. Their chief use for delight is in privateness and retiring: for ornament, is in discourse; and for ability, is in the judgment and disposition of business.

To spend too much time in studies is sloth; to use them too much for ornament is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules is the humour of a scholar. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested. Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtile; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend. So every defect of the mind may have a special receipt.

POPE—*Essay on Man*.

Cease then, nor Order imperfection name:
Our proper bliss depends on what we blame.
Know thy own point; this kind, this due degree
Of blindness, weakness, Heav'n bestows on thee.
Submit.—In this, or any other sphere,
Secure to be as blest as thou canst bear;
Safe in the hand of one disposing Pow'r,
Or in the natal, or the mortal hour.
All Nature is but Art, unknown to thee;
All Chance, Direction, which thou canst not see;
All Discord, Harmony not understood,
All partial Evil, Universal Good:
And, spite of Pride, in erring Reason's spite,
One truth is clear, whatever is, is Right.

DRYDEN—*Essays*.

He (*Shakspeare*) was the man who of all modern and perhaps ancient poets had the largest and most comprehensive soul. All the images of nature were still present to him, and he drew them not laboriously but luckily; when he describes any thing you more than see it, you feel it too. Those who accuse him to have wanted learning, give him the greater commendation; he was naturally learned: he needed not the spectacles of books to read nature; he looked inwards, and found her there. He is always great, when some great occasion is presented to him: no man can say he ever had a fit subject for his wit, and did not then raise himself as high above the rest of poets, "*Quantum lenta solent inter viburna cupressi.*"

ADDISON—*Spectator*, No. 108.

Will Wimble is younger brother to a baronet, and descended of the ancient family of the Wimbles. He is now between forty and fifty; but being bred to no business and born to no estate, he generally lives with his elder brother as superintendent of his game. He hunts a pack of dogs better than any man in the country, and is very famous for

finding out a hare. He is extremely well versed in all the little handicrafts of an idle man: he makes a May-fly to a miracle; and furnishes the whole country with angle-rods. He carries a tulip root in his pocket from one to another, or exchanges a puppy between a couple of friends that live perhaps in the opposite sides of the county. These gentleman-like manufactures and obliging little humours, make Will the darling of the county.

WORDSWORTH—*Ruth.*

He told of the Magnolia, spread
High as a cloud, high over head!
The cypress and her spire,
—Of flowers that with one scarlet gleam
Cover a hundred leagues, and seem
To set the hills on fire.

The youth of green savannahs spake,
And many an endless, endless lake,
With all its fairy crowds
Of islands, that together lie
As quietly as spots of sky
Among the evening clouds.

COLERIDGE—*Christabel.*

Outside her kennel the mastiff old
Lay fast asleep, in moonshine cold.
The mastiff old did not awake,
Yet she an angry moan did make!
And what can ail the mastiff bitch?
Never till now she utter'd yell
Beneath the eye of Christabel.
Perhaps it is the owl's scritch:
For what can ail the mastiff bitch?

SHELLEY—*Adonais.*

He is made one with Nature. There is heard
His voice in all her music, from the moan
Of thunder to the song of night's sweet bird.
He is a presence to be felt and known
In darkness and in light, from herb and stone,
Spreading itself where'er that Power may move
Which has withdrawn his being to its own,
Which wields the world with never-wearied love,
Sustains it from beneath, and kindles it above.

BURNS—*Cotter's Saturday Night.*

The cheerfu' supper done, wi' serious face,
They, round the ingle, form a circle wide;
The sire turns o'er, wi' patriarchal grace,
The big ha' Bible, ance his father's pride:
His bonnet reverently is laid aside,
His lyart haffets wearing thin an' bare.
Those strains that once did sweet in Zion glide,
He wales a portion with judicious care;
And "Let us worship God" he says, with solemn air.

SCOTT—*Guy Mannering ; Dominic Sampson.*

He was of low birth, but having evinced, even from his cradle, an uncommon seriousness of disposition, the poor parents were encouraged to hope that their *bairn*, as they expressed it, "might wag his pow in a pulpit yet." With an ambitious view to such a consummation, they pinched and pared, rose early and lay down late, ate dry bread and drank cold water, to secure to Abel the means of learning. Meantime, his tall, ungainly figure, his taciturn and grave manners, and some grotesque habits of swinging his limbs, and screwing his visage, while reciting his task, made poor Sampson the ridicule of all his school companions.

TENNYSON—*The Passing of Arthur.*

The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.
Comfort thyself : what comfort is in me ?
I have lived my life, and that which I have done
May He within himself make pure ! but thou,
If thou shouldst never see my face again,
Pray for my soul. More things are wrought by prayer
Than this world dreams of. Wherefore, let thy voice
Rise like a fountain for me night and day.
For what are men better than sheep or goats
That nourish a blind life within the brain,
If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer
Both for themselves and those who call them friend ?
For so the whole round earth is every way
Bound by gold chains about the feet of God.

BROWNING—*Rabbi Ben Ezra.*

Ay, note that Potter's wheel,
That metaphor ! and feel
Why time spins fast, why passive lies our clay,—
Thou, to whom fools propound,
When the wine makes its round,
" Since life fleets, all is change ; the Past gone, seize to-day ! "

Fool ! All that is, at all,
Lasts ever, past recall ;
Earth changes, but thy soul and God stand sure ;
What entered into thee,
That, was, is, and shall be ;
Time's wheel runs back or stops : Potter and clay endure.
MACAULAY—*Trial of Warren Hastings.*

Neither military nor civil pomp were wanting. The avenues were lined with grenadiers. The streets were kept clear by cavalry. The peers, robed in gold and ermine, were marshalled by the heralds under Garter-King-at-Arms. The judges in their vestments of state attended to give advice on points of law. Near a hundred and seventy lords, three-fourths of the Upper House as the Upper House then was, walked in solemn order from their usual place of assembling to the tribunal. The junior baron present led the way, George Elliot, Lord Heathfield.

recently ennobled for his memorable defence of Gibraltar against the fleets and armies of France and Spain. The long procession was closed by the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal of the realm, by the great dignitaries, and by the brothers and sons of the King. Last of all came the Prince of Wales, conspicuous by fine person and noble bearing.

THE STUDY OF A PASSAGE OF PROSE OR POETRY

425. The chief technical points to be noticed in the critical examination of a passage (omitting such considerations as its æsthetic value as a piece of literature) are :—

1. (*a*) Its general meaning and the main ideas intended to be conveyed by the writer ; (*b*) The exact meaning of any difficult phrases or sentences.

2. Any allusions or references in it : (*a*) historical ; (*b*) to the poet's life, works or character ; (*c*) to the age in which he lived.

3. Any grammatical peculiarities, unusual order of words, foreign or abnormal constructions, idiomatic phrases (see § 408).

4. The words contained in it : (*a*) poetical ; (*b*) archaic ; (*c*) used in a special sense ; (*d*) origin, if uncommon ; (*e*) suitability ; (*f*) musical effect of (see § 408).

5. Any figures of speech : their beauty and appropriateness (Chapter xxx.)

6. Ornament : (*a*) striking epithets (*c.g.* Adjectives, Adverbs, or Adj. and Adv. phrases) : (*b*) suitability : (*c*) whether plain, neat, graceful or flowery.

7. Metre ; rhyme and alliteration, if any (§§ 396-406).

8. Style : (*a*) whether suited to the subject ; (*b*) grave or gay, pathetic or humorous ; (*c*) elevated (sublime) or bathetic ; (*d*) graceful or vigorous ; (*e*) verbose or elliptical ; (*f*) simple or bombastic ; (*g*) dignified or affected ; (*h*) scholarly or pedantic ; (*i*) sarcastic or ironical ; (*j*) any marks characteristic of the poet or his age.

In each case of course, full reasons for any term must be given.

426. EXAMPLES—

I. CRITICISM OF STYLE, DICTION, METRE, ETC.

(i) A truly interesting son of earth and son of heaven. A great shock of rough dusty dark hair, bright, laughing, hazel eyes, massive aquiline face, most massive yet most delicate, of sallow brown com-

plexion, almost Indian looking ; clothes cynically loose, free and easy ; smokes infinite tobacco. One of the finest looking men in the world.

[CARLYLE on Tennyson.]

Criticism.—The style is abrupt, almost ejaculatory : the words are apparently thrown together anyhow, without harmony or order, yet in such a striking manner as to arrest our attention. Verbs and subjects are omitted throughout, except *smokes*, and that has no subject. In the first sentence *son of earth* and *son of heaven*, and in the second, *most massive yet most delicate*, are well-balanced antitheses. The epithets are peculiar : *dusty-dark* is almost paradoxical ; *cynically loose* is impossible literally, since *cynically* has reference to a person's manner ; *infinite tobacco* is strictly incorrect, being elliptical for *an infinite amount of tobacco* (which then is an example of hyperbole).

- (ii) Shocks and the splintering spear, the hard mail hewn,
Shield-breakings, and the clash of brands, the crash
Of battle-axes on shattered helms, and shrieks.

Criticism.—The metre is blank verse in iambic pentameters, of which the first foot (in lines 1 and 2) is a trochee. There is a large amount of alliteration, *e.g.*, shocks, splintering, spear ; hard, hewn. The "dinning" effect of the words is very suggestive of the vigorous action of the fight. The poetical words *mail, helms, hewn*, and the compound *shield-breakings* should also be noticed.

- (iii) And she bent o'er him, and he lay beneath,
Hush'd as a babe upon its mother's breast,
Droop'd as the willow when no winds can breathe,
Lull'd like the depth of ocean when at rest,
Fair as the crowning rose of the whole wreath,
Soft as the callow cygnet in its nest :
In short, he was a very pretty fellow,
Although his woes had turned him rather yellow.

Criticism.—The metre is iambic pentameter rhyming in alternate lines, except the last two lines, which themselves rhyme, and each of which is hypermetric. All but the last two lines are graceful ; the latter are decidedly bathetic, producing a humorous effect. The similes are frequent, in fact, rather over-done : *as a babe . . . breast, as the willow . . . breathe*, etc. There is slight alliteration throughout, *e.g.*, babe, breast ; willow, winds, etc.

II. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN DETAIL.

- (a) When you've shouted "Rule Britannia"—when you've sung
"God save the Queen"—

When you've finished killing Kruger with your mouth—
Will you kindly drop a shilling in my little tambourine
For a gentleman in kharki ordered South ?

RUDYARD KIPLING.

- (b) When *Rule Britannia* rings through hut and hall,
And men have sung *God save the Queen* withal ;
When has been whet the keen invective's sword
Against Meridian Afric's tyrant lord ;
Spare not your largess for his kin who plies
The legionary's task in tan-hued guise.

OWEN SEAMAN.

SIMILARITIES.

The subject and most of the details are similar in both : the singing of "Rule Britannia" and "God save the Queen," the cursing of Kruger, the request for money to help the soldiers.

DIFFERENCES.

1. Style generally. The second is, of course, an excellent parody on the first. The first may be said to be written in "barrack-room" or "tavern" style, and thus it has a good swing such as would catch the popular ear; some of the words are used in a very unpoetical manner, *e.g.*, *shouted*, *mouth*, *drop*, and some phrases are affected, such as *killing with your mouth* and *gentleman in kharki*. The second is a clever burlesque of this, affected, high-flown, bombastic, mock-heroic throughout.

2. Diction in detail. Nothing corresponding to *through hut and hall* in *b* is found in *a*; *killing with your mouth* in *a* becomes in *b* *whet the keen invective's sword*; *Kruger* in *a* is termed *Meridian Afric's tyrant lord* in *b* (*tyrant* giving an additional idea); *drop a shilling* becomes the more general *spare not your largess*; the idea of the *tambourine* in *a* is omitted in *b*; *gentleman in kharki* in *a* is translated into the high-flown *legionary in tan-hued guise* in *b*; in *a* the money is for the soldier, in *b* for *his kin*; the fact of his being *ordered South* in *a* is omitted in *b*.

3. Metre. The first is written in trochaic octometers and hexameters alternately—the last foot in each line being catalectic. The second is in iambic pentameters rhymed, *i.e.* in heroic couplets.

III. QUESTION.—Apply one of the terms—Graceful, Pedantic, Bombastic, Elevated, Bathos—to each of the following, stating your reasons in each instance :—

- (a) No ! rather let the fountain of your valour
Spring through each stream of enterprise,
Each petty channel of conducive daring,
Till the full torrent of your foaming wrath
O'erwhelm the flats of sunk hostility !
- (b) And like the baseless fabric of this vision,
The cloud capped towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself,
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve.
- (c) Mark him of shoulders curved, of stature tall,
Black hair and vivid eye and meagre cheek,
His prominent feature like an eagle's beak.
- (d) Graced as thou art with all the power of words,
So known, so honoured at the House of Lords.
- (e) It haunted me, the morning long,
With weary sameness in the rhymes,
The phantom of a silent song,
That went and came a thousand times.

PAPERS SET

AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON MATRICULATION EXAMINATION ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

JUNE 1907.

[N.B.—*Begin each answer on a fresh page.*]

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The rise and growth of Wessex.
- (ii) The development of representative government in the 13th century.
- (iii) The conflict of the Church with the early Angevin kings.
- (iv) Ocean currents.
- (v) The chief seaports of the United Kingdom.
- (vi) The products, manufactures, and commerce of the Iberian Peninsula.

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) State (*a*) the main purport of the following passage under one title or heading; and (*b*) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.

(ii) Write a précis of the passage, giving its substance, without anything superfluous.

What is that which first strikes us, and strikes us at once, in a man of education, and which, among educated men, so instantly distinguishes the man of superior mind, that, as was observed with eminent propriety of the late Edmund Burke “we cannot stand under the same archway during a shower of rain, without finding him out”? Not the weight of novelty of his remarks; not any unusual interest of facts communicated by him; for we may suppose both the one and the other precluded by the shortness of our intercourse, and the triviality of the subjects. The difference will be impressed and felt, though

the conversation should be confined to the state of the weather or the pavement. Still less will it arise from any peculiarity in his words and phrases. Unless where new things necessitate new terms, he will avoid an unusual word as a rock. It must have been among the earliest lessons of his youth, that the breach of this precept, at all times hazardous, becomes ridiculous in the topics of ordinary conversation. There remains but one other point of distinction possible ; and this must be, and in fact is, the true cause of the impression made on us. It is the unpremeditated and evidently habitual arrangement of his words, grounded on the habit of foreseeing, in each integral part, or, more plainly, in every sentence, the whole that he then intends to communicate. However irregular and desultory his talk, there is method in the fragments.

Listen, on the other hand, to an ignorant man, though perhaps shrewd and able in his particular calling, whether he be describing or relating. We immediately perceive that his memory alone is called into action ; and that the objects and events recur in the narration in the same order, and with the same accompaniments, however accidental or impertinent, in which they had first occurred to the narrator. The necessity of taking breath, the efforts of recollection, and the abrupt rectification of its failures produce all his pauses ; and with exception of the " and then," the " and there," and the still less significant " and so," they constitute likewise all his connections.

Our discussion, however, is confined to method as employed in the formation of the understanding, and in the constructions of science and literature. It would indeed be superfluous to attempt a proof of its importance in the business and economy of active or domestic life. From the cotter's hearth or the workshop of the artizan to the palace or the arsenal, the first merit, that which admits neither substitute nor equivalent, is that everything be in its place. Where this charm is wanting, every other merit either loses its name, or becomes an additional ground of accusation and regret. Of one, by whom it is eminently possessed, we say proverbially, he is like clock-work. The resemblance extends beyond the point of regularity, and yet falls short of the truth. Both do, indeed, at once divide and announce the silent and otherwise indistinguishable lapse of time. But the man of methodical industry and honourable pursuits does more ; he realizes its ideal divisions, and gives a character and individuality to its moments. If the idle are described as killing time, he may be justly said to call it into life and moral being, while he makes it the distinct object not only of the consciousness, but of the conscience. He organizes the hours, and gives them a soul ; and that, the very essence of which is to fleet away, and evermore to have been, he takes up into his own permanence, and communicates to it the imperishableness of a spirit nature. Of the " good and faithful servant " whose energies thus directed, are thus methodized, it is less truly affirmed, that he lives in time, than that time lives in him. His days, months, and years, as the stops and punctual marks in the records of duties performed, will survive the wreck of worlds, and remain extant when time itself shall be no more.

Coleridge

3. ANALYSIS.

(a) Write the Adverbial and Substantival Clauses in the following extract, and state precisely with what words they are connected :—

Strike audibly the noblest of your lyres,
And for a moment meet the soul's desires !
That I, or some more favoured Bard, may hear
What ye, celestial Maids ! have often sung
Of Britain's acts,—may catch it with rapt ear,
And give the treasure to our British tongue !
So shall the characters of that proud page
Support their mighty theme from age to age ;
And, in the desert places of the earth,
When they to future empires have given birth,
So shall the people gather and believe
The bold report, transferred to every clime ;
And the whole world, not envious but admiring,
And to the like aspiring,
Own that the progeny of this fair Isle
Had power as lofty actions to achieve
As were performed in man's heroic prime.

(b) Explain fully the difference between Elliptical and Contracted Sentences, and give two examples of each.

4. PARAPHRASE : HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL ALLUSIONS.

(a) Write a prose version of—

Fair stood the wind for France
When we our sails advance,
Nor now to prove our chance
Longer will tarry ;
But putting to the main,
At Kaux, the mouth of Seine,
With all his martial train,
Landed King Harry.

And taking many a fort,
Furnish'd in warlike sort
March'd towards Agincourt
In happy hour ;
Skirmishing day by day
With those that stop'd his way,
Where the French gen'ral lay
With all his power.

(b) Give a brief account of the places and event referred to.

[N.B.—Only Two of the following questions are to be attempted.]

5. SYNTAX : CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

(a) Discuss the case of the words in *italics* :—

- (i) Woe worth the *chase* ! woe worth the *day*
That cost thy life, my gallant grey !
- (ii) He was taught *French* at an early age.
- (iii) The traveller promised the *natives* a reward for their assistance.
- (iv) The turbulent nobles were banished the *realm*.

(b) Point out any faults in the syntax or phraseology of the following sentences :—

- (i) These were the facts he adduced in support of his theory ;
but there are a number yet to be considered.
- (ii) He had invented a continual process for manufacturing nitric acid.
- (iii) It was evident that no such precautions were taken that the disaster might have been prevented.
- (iv) No man inveigh against the withered flower,
But chide rough winter that the flower hath killed.

6. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

Define the figures of speech employed in the following passages, and criticise those that are defective :—

- (i) Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them ?
- (ii) The hopes of the party were shattered by the death of their leader, and by their own incapacity.
- (iii) The best way to learn a language is to speak it.
- (iv) Persuasion tips his tongue whene'er he talks,
And he has chambers in King's Bench Walks.
- (v) That accomplished lawyer knew a little of everything, even of law.
- (vi) The gaping clouds pour lakes of sulphur down,
Whose livid flashes sickening sunbeams drown.

7. PASSAGES FOR COMMENT.

Explain briefly the meaning of :—

- (i) There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune ;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.
- (ii) There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
Than are dreamt of in your philosophy.
- (iii) In squandering wealth was his peculiar art,
Nothing went unrewarded but desert.
- (iv) Storied windows richly dight,
Casting a dim religious light.
- (v) Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath ?
Can Honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or Flattery soothe the dull cold ear of Death ?
- (vi) I, to herd with narrow foreheads, vacant of our glorious gains,
Like a beast with lower pleasures, like a beast with lower pains !

8. CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES, METRE, PUNCTUATION.

(a) Write the following passage in three sentences, expressing the ideas in a simpler form :—

I deem it to be an old error of Universities not yet well recovered from the scholastic grossness of barbarous ages, that instead of

beginning with arts most easy, and those be such as are most obvious to the sense, they present their young unmatriculated novices at first coming with the most intellective abstractions of logic and metaphysics ; so that they having but newly left those grammatic flats and shallows where they stuck unreasonably to learn a few words with lamentable construction, and now on the sudden transported under another climate to be tost and turmoiled with their unballasted wits in fathomless and unquiet deeps of controversy, do for the most part grow into hatred and contempt of learning, mocked and deluded all this while with ragged notions and babblements, while they expected worthy and delightful knowledge.

(b) Write the passage below in blank verse and punctuate it :—

For when he laid a tax upon his town and all the mothers brought their children clamouring if we pay we starve she sought her lord and found him where he strode about the hall among his dogs alone his beard a foot before him and his hair a yard behind.

SEPTEMBER 1907.

[N.B.—*Begin each answer on a fresh page.*]

I. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The significance and influence of the Crusades.
- (ii) Ecclesiastical Statesmen in English History.
- (iii) The growth of democracy in the 19th century.
- (iv) European domination in North Africa.
- (v) Canadian Industries.
- (vi) The Rivers of France.

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) State (a) the main purport of the following passage under *one* title or heading ; and (b) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.

(ii) Write a Précis of the passage, giving its substance without anything superfluous.

No war had broken out in Europe, since the fall of the Roman Empire, so memorable as that of Edward III. and his successors against France, whether we consider its duration, its object, or the magnitude and variety of its events. It was a struggle of 120 years, interrupted but once by a regular pacification, where the most ancient and extensive dominion in the civilised world was the prize, twice lost and twice recovered in the conflict, while individual courage was wrought up to that high pitch, which it can seldom display, since the regularity of modern tactics has chastised its enthusiasm, and levelled its distinctions.

France was, even in the fourteenth century, a kingdom of such extent and compactness of figure, such population and resources, and filled with so spirited a nobility, that the very idea of subjugating it by a foreign force must have seemed the most extravagant dream of ambition. Yet in the course of about twenty years of war, this mighty nation was reduced to the lowest state of exhaustion, and dismembered of considerable provinces by an ignominious peace.

The first advantage which Edward III. possessed in this contest

was derived from the splendour of his personal character, and from the still more eminent virtues of his son. Besides prudence and military skill, these great princes were endowed with qualities peculiarly fitted for the times in which they lived. Chivalry was then in its zenith; and in all the virtues which adorned the kingly character, in courtesy, munificence, gallantry, in all delicate and magnanimous feelings, none were so conspicuous as Edward III. and the Black Prince. Their court was, as it were, the sun of that system, which embraced the valour and nobility of the Christian world; and the respect which was felt for their excellences, while it drew many to their side, mitigated in all the rancour and ferociousness of hostility. This war was like a great tournament, where the combatants fought indeed *à outrance*, but with all the courtesy and fair play of such an entertainment, and almost as much for the honour of their ladies. If we could forget, what never should be forgotten, the wretchedness and devastation that fell upon a great kingdom, too dear a price for the display of any heroism, we might count these English wars in France among the brightest periods in history.

3. ANALYSIS AND INDIRECT SPEECH.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passage, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

Soft you ; a word or two before you go.
I have done the State some service, and they know't ;
No more of that. I pray you, in your letters,
When you shall these unlucky deeds relate,
Speak of me as I am ; nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice : then must you speak
Of one that loved, not wisely, but too well ;
Of one not easily jealous, but, being wrought,
Perplexed in the extreme ; of one whose hand,
Like the base Indian, threw a pearl away
Richer than all his tribe.

(b) Write the following in indirect speech :—

Do not suppose that the Government is indifferent on this subject. I myself am heartily in sympathy with the scheme. But where am I to find the money ? I am as anxious as anyone to make a start, and I believe you will have to proceed by stages. But I must ask the honourable gentleman to give me a little more time. I have told him what my aspirations are, but I should be guilty of dishonesty if I made any promise in the absence of the knowledge which I shall possess later.

4. PARAPHRASE : HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL ALLUSIONS.

(a) Write a prose version of :—

And who that walks where men of ancient days
Have wrought with godlike arm the deeds of praise,
Feels not the spirit of the place control,
Or rouse and agitate his labouring soul ?
Say, who, by thinking on Canadian hills,
Or wild Aosta, lulled by Alpine rills,
Or Zutphen's plain, or on that highland dell,
Through which rough Garry cleaves his way, can tell
What high resolves exalt the tenderest thought

Of him whom passion rivets to the spot,
Where breathed the gale that caught Wolfe's happiest sigh,
And the last sunbeam fell on Bayard's eye ;
Where bleeding Sydney from the cup retired,
And glad Dundee in "faint huzzas" expired ?

(b) Give a short account of the persons, places, and events referred to.

[N.B.—Only Two of the following questions are to be attempted.]

5. SYNTAX.

- (a) Distinguish between the use of *who* and *that* as Relative Pronouns.
- (b) State under what conditions other Relatives may be employed, and illustrate your answer by sentences.
- (c) To what class of Pronouns would you assign the *italicised* words in the following sentences ? Give your reasons in each instance :—
 - (i) Along that desolate coast *you* might walk many a mile without meeting a living creature.
 - (ii) *We* are told on good authority that no such practice is known in uncivilised tribes.
 - (iii) In the north *they* say that the harvest will be much later this year.

6. MEANINGS OF WORDS.

- (a) Define and illustrate the meanings of—*immunity*, *irascible*, *delinquency*, and *perfunctory*.
- (b) Write two synonyms for each of the above terms.
- (c) Explain the force of the prepositions in—
 - (i) The squire claimed descent *from* a Norman baron.
 - (ii) He died a few months ago *of* cancer.
 - (iii) *With* all his learning he had but little judgment.
 - (iv) The lifeboat made straight *for* the sinking ship.

7. PUNCTUATION ; METRE.

- (a) Punctuate—These cautions were not neglected from the moment at which Grandval entered the Netherlands his steps were among snares his movements were watched his words were noted he was arrested examined confronted with his accomplices and sent to the camp of the allies about a week after the battle of Steinkirk he was brought before a court martial.
- (b) Describe the metre of—
 - (i) Then upon the ground the warriors
Threw their cloaks and shirts of deerskin,
Threw their weapons and their war gear.
 - (ii) For the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,
And coming events cast their shadows before.
 - (iii) To coxcombs averse, yet most civilly steering,
When they judged without skill, he was still hard of hearing.

8. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Discuss any errors in the syntax, phraseology, or order of words in the following sentences :—

- (i) Of all the measures proposed during the last century for remedying the evil, those now before the House of Commons were thought to be the most effective.

- (ii) Local sentiment is far less pronounced in London than in many other provincial towns.
- (iii) If he had entertained less disparaging notions of his predecessors, one may perceive in Bacon himself that many of the flaws which here and there disfigure his writings would have vanished.
- (iv) He wrote, previously to his landing in France, that he intended to proceed to Egypt.
- (v) Considering his age, he had made great progress in his classical studies.
- (vi) That this practice has the highest of all sanctions is proved by the preface to the first edition of Shakespeare, where the editors say of him, "His mind and hand went together; and what he thought he uttered with that easiness that we have scarce received from him a blot in his papers."

JANUARY 1908.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) A comparison of Alfred the Great with William the Conqueror.
- (ii) The historical interest of the Rhine and the Rhone.
- (iii) The development of town life in the Middle Ages.
- (iv) The natural features of Scotland.
- (v) The progress of mechanical invention during the last century.
- (vi) The cities of northern Italy.

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) State (*a*) the main purport of the following passage under one title or heading; and (*b*) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.

(ii) Write a *précis* of the passage, giving its substance, without anything superfluous.

There is an exclamation in one of Gray's letters—"Be mine to read eternal new romances of Marivaux and Crébillon!" If I did not utter a similar aspiration at the conclusion of the last new novel which I read, it was not from any want of affection for the class of writing to which it belongs: for, without going so far as the celebrated French philosopher, who thought that more was to be learned from good novels and romances than from the gravest treatises on history and morality, yet there are few works to which I am oftener tempted to turn for profit or delight, than to the standard productions in this species of composition. We find there a close imitation of men and manners; we see the very web and texture of society as it really exists, and as we meet with it when we come into the world. If poetry has "something more divine in it," this savours more of humanity. We are brought acquainted with the motives and characters of mankind, imbibe our notions of virtue and vice from practical examples, and are taught a knowledge of the world through the airy medium of romance.

As a record of past manners and opinions, too, such writings afford the best and fullest information. For example, I should be at a loss where to find in any authentic documents of the same period so satisfactory an account of the general state of society, and of moral, political,

and religious feeling in the reign of George II., as we meet with in the adventures of Joseph Andrews and his friend Mr Abraham Adams. This work, indeed, I take to be a perfect piece of statistics in its kind. In looking into any regular history of that period, into a learned and eloquent charge to a grand jury or the clergy of a diocese, or into a tract on controversial divinity, we should hear only of the ascendancy of the Protestant succession, the horrors of popery, the triumph of civil and religious liberty, the wisdom and moderation of the sovereign, the happiness of the subject, and the flourishing state of manufactures and commerce.

But if we really wish to know what all these fine-sounding names come to, we cannot do better than turn to the works of those who, having no other object than to imitate nature, could only hope for success from the fidelity of their pictures ; and were bound (in self-defence) to reduce the boasts of vague theorists and the exaggerations of angry disputants to the mortifying standard of reality. Extremes are said to meet : and the works of imagination, as they are called, sometimes come the nearest to truth and nature. Fielding, in speaking on this subject, and vindicating the use and dignity of the style of writing in which he excelled against the loftier pretensions of professed historians, says that in their productions nothing is true but the names and dates, whereas in his everything is true but the names and the dates. If so, he has the advantage on his side.

3. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passage, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

Not that I think you did not love your father ;
 But that I know love is begun by time ;
 And that I see, in passages of proof,
 Time qualifies the spark and fire of it.
 There lives within the very flame of love
 A kind of wick or snuff that will abate it ;
 And nothing is at a like goodness still ;
 For goodness, growing to a pleurisy,
 Dies in his own too-much : that we would do,
 We should do when we would ; for this " would " changes,
 And hath abatements and delays as many
 As there are tongues, are hands, are accidents.

(b) Narrate the following incident in three sentences, introducing all the facts supplied, and avoiding the use of the word *and* :—

Soon after the Spanish governor sent for them. They were brought to Chaco. They were very well treated by the people there. John Byron was asked to marry the niece of a rich old priest. The lady made the suggestion through her uncle. She wished him to be converted first. The old priest made the offer. He took John Byron into a room. There were several large chests there. They were full of clothes. He took a large piece of linen from one of them. The linen was to be made into shirts for him. This was only if he married the lady. The thought of new shirts was a great temptation to Byron. He had only one shirt. He had worn this ever since he had been wrecked. He denied himself this luxury. He excused himself from the honour of marrying the lady.

4. PARAPHRASE : HISTORICAL ALLUSIONS.

(a) Write a prose version of :—

Much have I travell'd in the realms of gold,
 And many goodly states and kingdoms seen ;
 Round many western islands have I been,
 Which bards in fealty to Apollo hold.
 Oft of one wide expanse had I been told
 That deep-brow'd Homer ruled as his demesne :
 Yet did I never breathe its pure serene
 Till I heard Chapman speak out loud and bold :
 —Then felt I like some watcher of the skies
 When a new planet swims into his ken ;
 Or like stout Cortes, when with eagle eyes
 He stared at the Pacific—and all his men
 Look'd at each other with a wild surmise—
 Silent, upon a peak in Darien.

(b) Explain the allusions.

[N.B.—Only Two of the following questions are to be attempted.]

5. USES OF WORDS.

(a) Illustrate by sentences the various uses of the words, *fair*, and *fast*.(b) Explain and illustrate the differences of meaning in the following triplets of words of the same origin :—*contingent, contiguous, contagious ; efficient, effective, effectual ; transitive, transitory, transitional*.(c) Bring the following five words appropriately into a single sentence :—*virulent, exigency, temporise, trenchant, proclivity*.

6. PROSODY : PUNCTUATION.

The following passage is a dialogue in blank verse between Antony and Cleopatra. Rewrite it in metrical form with the correct punctuation, assigning the words to the proper characters.

Antony is not Cæsar now a god we hear so nay we know it why not thou men would not venture then to strike a blow at thee the laws declare it sacrilege Julius if I knew Julius had been rather first among men than last among the gods at least put on thy head a kingly crown I have put on a laurel one already as many kingly crowns as should half cover the Libyan desert are not worth this one but all would bend before thee 'twas the fault of Cæsar to adopt it 'twas his death be then what Cæsar is.

7. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Point out the faults in the following sentences, and rewrite the passages in correct form :—

- (i) Peter Galbraith could not fully understand his daughter's fascination for the mighty beacon which made a circle of flame on the prairie, burning, summer and winter, from dusk to daylight.
- (ii) But, whatever his faults, not his worst enemy could accuse Dr Nevington of being a respecter of persons unless he was well assured beforehand whom such persons might be.
- (iii) Nor should we omit to mention among the things which have furthered the spread of cheap communications, the introduction of penny postage between any part of the United Kingdom in 1839.

- (iv) Among the exponents and advocates of the Protectionists is Mr Underwood, who, if he be not a Cobdenite, then it may be asked, what is Cobdenism ?
- (v) To pick one character out of many, there is Drisen, the descendant of a princely house, who is one of the most fascinating rogues that has enlivened the pages of fiction for many a day.
- (vi) Pierre came back in a few days to see how Shon was, and expressed his determination of staying to help Sir Duke, if need be.

8. DICTION.

Rewrite the following passage in modern English :—

For there was never man so earnest and painful a follower of virtue and hater of pleasure, that would so enjoin you labours, watchings, and fastings, but he would also exhort you to ease, lighten, and relieve, to your power, the lack and misery of others, praising the same as a deed of humanity and pity. Then if it be a point of humanity for man to bring health and comfort to man, and specially (which is a virtue most peculiarly belonging to man) to mitigate and assuage the grief of others, and by taking from them the sorrow and heaviness of life, to restore them to joy, that is to say to pleasure ; why may it not then be said that nature doth provoke every man to do the same to himself ? For a joyful life, that is to say, a pleasant life is either evil : and if it be so, then thou shouldest not only help no man thereto, but rather, as much as in thee lieth, withdraw all men from it as noisome and hurtful, or else if thou not only mayest but also of duty art bound to procure it to others, why not chiefly to thyself ? To whom thou art bound to show as much favour and gentleness as to other.

JUNE 1908.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The American War of Independence.
- (ii) The consolidation of Great Britain.
- (iii) The English peasantry in the Middle Ages.
- (iv) The chief cities of Hindustan.
- (v) The Nile.
- (vi) The lakes and rivers of Ireland.

2. PRÉCIS.

- (i) State (*a*) the main purport of the following passage under *one* title or heading ; and (*b*) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.
- (ii) Write a précis of the passage, giving its substance, without anything superfluous.

The sun was now resting his huge disk upon the edge of the level ocean, and gilded the accumulation of towering clouds through which he had travelled the livelong day, and which now assembled on all sides, like misfortunes and disasters around a sinking empire and falling monarch. Still, however, his dying splendour gave a sombre magnificence to the massive congregation of vapours, forming out of their unsubstantial gloom the show of pyramids and towers, some touched with gold, some with purple, some with a hue of deep and dark red. The distant sea, stretched beneath this varied and gorgeous canopy, lay almost portentously still, reflecting back the dazzling and level

beams of the descending luminary, and the splendid colouring of the clouds amidst which he was setting. Nearer to the beach the tide rippled onward in waves of sparkling silver, that imperceptibly, yet rapidly, gained upon the sand.

With a mind employed in admiration of the romantic scene, or perhaps on some more agitating topic, Miss Wardour advanced in silence by her father's side, whose recently offended dignity did not stoop to open any conversation. Following the windings of the beach, they passed one projecting point or headland of rock after another, and now found themselves under a huge and continued extent of the precipices by which that iron-bound coast is in most places defended. Long projecting reefs of rock, extending under water, and only evincing their existence by here and there a peak entirely bare, or by the breakers which foamed over those that were partially covered, rendered Knockwinnock bay dreaded by pilots and ship-masters. The crags which rose between the beach and the mainland, to the height of two or three hundred feet, afforded in their crevices shelter for unnumbered sea-fowl, in situations seemingly secured by their dizzy height from the rapacity of man. Many of these wild tribes, with the instinct which sends them to seek the land before a storm arises, were now winging towards their nests with the shrill and dissonant clang which announces disquietude and fear.

The disk of the sun became almost totally obscured ere he had altogether sunk below the horizon, and an early and lurid shade of darkness blotted the serene twilight of a summer evening. The wind began next to arise; but its wild and moaning sound was heard for some time, and its effects became visible on the bosom of the sea, before the gale was felt on shore. The mass of waters, now dark and threatening, began to lift itself in larger ridges, and sink in deeper furrows, forming waves that rose high in foam upon the breakers, or burst upon the beach with a sound resembling distant thunder.

3. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write in a column separate lists of the substantival and the adjectival clauses in the following passage. State in a second parallel column the relation of these clauses to the principal sentences.

Pym. Have I done well? Speak, England! whose sole sake
 I still have laboured for, with disregard
 To my own heart,—for whom my youth was made
 Barren, my manhood waste, to offer up
 Her sacrifice—this friend, this Wentworth here—
 Who walked in youth with me—loved me, it may be,
 And whom, for his forsaking England's cause,
 I hunted by all means (trusting that she
 Would sanctify all means) even to the block
 Which waits for him. And saying this, I feel
 No bitterer pang than first I felt, the hour
 I swore that Wentworth might leave us, but I
 Would never leave him; I do leave him now!

(b) Condense the following passage into two compound sentences by altering the connective words and the order of the sentences, where necessary:—

He was indeed beyond comparison, in his proper sphere, greater and brighter than most of those around him. But he showed far too plainly that he knew it. Modesty would have been a glory, being combined

with that magnificent ability. And his tongue was incredibly sharp ; and absolutely unbridled. It looks as though he never kept back any keen saying which occurred to him. And the serene, deliberate, and seemingly affected manner in which he spoke, gave tenfold bitterness.

4. PARAPHRASE : HISTORICAL ALLUSIONS.

(a) Give a prose version of the first ten lines in 3 (a).

(b) Explain the allusions in 3 (a).

[N.B.—Only Two of the following questions are to be attempted.]

5. SYNTAX.

(a) Write six sentences illustrating the use of the subjunctive mood in principal and subordinate clauses.

(b) State the force of the infinitive mood in :—

(i) He was very glad to hear of his friend's recovery.

(ii) Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

(iii) He hopes to enjoy the reward of his labours in years to come.

(iv) To speak candidly, the work is very imperfect.

6. PUNCTUATION : METRE.

(a) Write the following passage and punctuate it :—

His birthday which occurred a week after his arrival was celebrated with one of the most splendid fêtes ever beheld at naples but notwithstanding the splendour with which he was encircled and the flattering honours with which all ranks welcomed him nelson was fully sensible of the depravity as well as weakness of those by whom he was surrounded what precious moments said he the courts of naples and vienna are losing three months would liberate italy but this court is so enervated that the happy moment will be lost I am very unwell and their miserable conduct is not likely to cool my irritable temper.

(b) Describe the metres of—

(i) The winds play no longer and sing in the leaves,
Nor Ouse on his bosom their image receives.

(ii) This is the forest primeval. But where are the hearts that
beneath it
Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice
of the huntsman ?

(iii) With scutcheons of silver the coffin is shielded,
And pages stand mute by the canopied pall.

7. ERRORS AND AMBIGUITIES.

Comment on, and correct (where necessary), the faults in the following sentences :—

(i) Beaumont was so accurate a judge of plays, that Ben Jonson, while he lived, submitted all his writings to his censure, and 'tis thought used his judgment in correcting all his plots.

(ii) The captain declared that his vessel had carried not less than three hundred passengers on any voyage.

(iii) I hope the day is far distant when politicians will be guided less by the needs of their party than by the good of the nation, or that the electors will prefer to have their opinions ready made than to judge for themselves.

(iv) Though the rent was well adapted for his means, the locality was ill adapted to the residence of a man of his rank.

(v) It was his intention to have travelled from Cologne to Mayence, but he was compelled to return home.

(vi) Logically, either the proposition is true, or false ; either the facts are correctly, or incorrectly stated.

8. STYLE AND DICTION.

(a) Point out the differences between (i) and (ii), and state your reasons for preferring one to the other :—

(i) When the manners, customs, and amusements of a nation are cruel and barbarous, the regulations of their penal code will be severe.

(ii) When men delight in battles, bull-fights, and combats of gladiators, they will punish by hanging, burning, and the rack.

(b) On what principle is the following paragraph constructed ? State its main theme, the illustrations of it, and how the last sentence is related to the others.

A man of polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. He can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue. He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often feels a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows than another does in the possession of them. It gives him a kind of property in everything he sees, and makes the most rude, uncultivated parts of nature administer to his pleasures. So that he looks on the world in another light and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind.

SEPTEMBER 1908.—*New Regulations.*

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The Olympic Games.
- (ii) The Government of Russia.
- (iii) School Rewards and Punishments.
- (iv) Historic London.
- (v) Notable Heroines in Prose Fiction.

[N.B.—Only FIVE of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) State (a) the main purport of the following passage under one title or heading ; and (b) the purport of each paragraph in the same way.

(ii) Write a précis of the passage, giving its substance without anything superfluous.

In every species of creatures, those who have been least time in the world appear best pleased with their condition ; for, besides that to a new comer the world hath a freshness on it that strikes the sense after a most agreeable manner, being itself, unattended with any great variety of enjoyments, excites a sensation of pleasure. But as age advances, everything seems to wither, the senses are disgusted with their old entertainments, and existence turns flat and insipid. We may see this exemplified in mankind ; the child, let him be free from pain and gratified in his change of toys, is diverted with the smallest trifle. Nothing disturbs the mirth of the boy but a little punishment or confinement. The youth must have more violent pleasures to employ his time ; the man loves the hurry of an active life, devoted to the pursuits of wealth or ambition ; and lastly, old age,

having lost its capacity for these avocations, becomes its own insupportable burden. This variety may in part be accounted for by the vivacity and decay of the faculties ; but I believe is chiefly owing to this, that the longer we have been in possession of being, the less sensible is the gust we have of it ; and the more it requires of adventitious amusements to relieve us from the satiety and weariness it brings along with it.

And as novelty is of a very powerful, so of a most extensive influence. Moralists have long since observed it to be the source of admiration, which lessens in proportion to our familiarity with objects, and upon a thorough acquaintance is utterly extinguished. But I think it hath not been so commonly remarked, that all the other passions depend considerably on the same circumstances. What is it but novelty that awakens desire, enhances delight, kindles anger, provokes envy, inspires horror ? To this cause we must ascribe it that love languishes with fruition, and friendship itself is recommended by intervals of absence ; hence monsters, by use, are beheld without loathing, and the most enchanting beauty without rapture. That emotion of the spirits in which passion consists is usually the effect of surprise, and as long as it continues, heightens the agreeable or disagreeable qualities of its object ; but as this emotion ceases (and it ceases with the novelty), things appear in another light, and affect us even less than might be expected from their proper energy, for having moved us too much before.

It may not be an useless enquiry how far the love of novelty is the unavoidable growth of nature, and in what respects it is peculiarly adapted to the present state. To me it seems impossible that a reasonable creature should rest absolutely satisfied in any acquisition whatever, without endeavouring farther ; for after its highest improvements, the mind hath an idea of an infinity of things still behind worth knowing, to the knowledge of which therefore it cannot be indifferent ; as by climbing up a hill in the midst of a wide plain a man hath his prospects enlarged, and, together with that, the bounds of his desires. Upon this account, I cannot think he detracts from the state of the blessed, who conceives them to be perpetually employed in fresh searches into nature, and to eternity advancing into the fathomless depths of the divine perfections.

3. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passages, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

- (i) If it be so, Sir, that you are the man
Must stead us all, and me among the rest ;
And if you break the ice, and do this feat,—
Achieve the elder, set the younger free
For our access,—whose hap shall be to have her
Will not so graceless be to be ingrate.
- (ii) Though I am satisfied, and need no more
Than what I know, yet shall the oracle
Give rest to the minds of others such as he.
Whose ignorant credulity will not
Come up to the truth ; so have we thought it good
From our free person she should be confined.

(b) The following passage is the account of her call given by Joan

of Arc. Rewrite it in four sentences, avoiding the use of semi-colons and of the word *and*.

At the age of thirteen, a voice from God came near to her, and that voice came to her about the hour of noon, in summer time, while she was in her father's garden. And she heard the voice on her right, in the direction of the church; and when she heard the voice, she also saw a bright light. Afterwards, three saints appeared to her. They were always in a halo of glory; she could see that their heads were crowned with jewels; and she heard their voices, which were sweet and mild. She heard them more frequently than she saw them; and the usual time when she heard them was when the church bells were sounding for prayer. And if she was in the woods when she heard them, she could plainly distinguish their voices drawing near to her. When she thought that she discerned the heavenly voices, she knelt down, and bowed herself to the ground. Their presence gladdened her even to tears; and after they departed, she wept because they had not taken her with them back to Paradise. They always spoke soothingly to her. They told her that France would be saved, and that she was to save it.

4. PARAPHRASE.

(a) Write a prose version of—

Thy sons of glory many! Alfred thine,
In whom the splendour of heroic war,
And more heroic peace, when governed well,
Combines; whose hallowed name the Virtues saint,
And his own Muses love; the best of kings!
With him thy Edwards and thy Henrys shrine,
Names dear to fame; the first who deep impressed
On haughty Gaul the terror of thy arms,
That awes her genius still. In statesmen thou,
And patriots, fertile. Thine a steady More,
Who, with a generous though mistaken zeal
Withstood a brutal tyrant's lustful rage,
Like Cato firm, like Aristides just,
Like rigid Cincinnatus nobly poor,
A dauntless soul erect, who smiled on death.

(b) Briefly explain the allusions in the above passage.

5. PROSODY.

(a) Rewrite the following stanzas in verse form, with the proper punctuation, dividing the lines according to the rhymes, without changing the order of the words:—

(i) As music and splendour survive not the lamp and the lute
the heart's echoes render no song when the spirit is mute
no song but sad dirges like the wind through a ruined
cell or the mournful surges that ring the dead seaman's
knell.

(ii) I saw eternity the other night like a great ring of pure and
endless light all calm as it was bright and round beneath
it time in hours days years driven by the spheres like
a vast shadow moved in which the world and all her train
were hurled.

- (iii) And lo we call you Alfred kinglihood lies in the name of him the good and great you may not rise to greatness o be good at any rate.

(b) Explain the metres used.

6. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Express correctly, without comment, the following faulty sentences—

- (i) There were only a few companies, comprised mainly of militiamen.
- (ii) I beheld a man in the dress of a postilion, whom I instantly recognised as he to whom I had rendered assistance.
- (iii) Every Warwick institution, from the corporation to the schools and the almshouses, have joined hands in patriotic fellow-working.
- (iv) Swift's plan was to offer to fulfil it on conditions so insulting that no one with a grain of self-respect could accept.
- (v) I think sculpture and painting have an effect to teach us manners and abolish hurry.
- (vi) Their journeymen are far too declamatory, and too much addicted to substitute vague and puerile dissertations for solid instruction.
- (vii) Another stroke of palsy soon rendered Sir Sampson unconscious even to the charms of Grizzly's conversation.
- (viii) Moderate churchmen, moving at length from their old moorings, are beginning to lift this question out of the party rut.
- (ix) I have now seen him, and though not for long, he is a man who speaks with perfect frankness.

7. HISTORY OF LITERATURE.

Round the dome of the reading-room in the British Museum are inscribed the following representative names in English Literature :—Addison, Bacon, Browning, Byron, Carlyle, Caxton, Chaucer, Gibbon, Locke, Macaulay, Milton, Pope, Scott, Shakespeare, Spenser, Swift, Tennyson, Tindale, Wordsworth. Write a couple of lines about each, taking the names in chronological order.

JANUARY 1909.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) Old Age Pensions.
- (ii) The Turks in Europe.
- (iii) The Charm of Poetry.
- (iv) The Future of Scientific Discovery.
- (v) The Power and Responsibilities of the Press.

[N.B.—Only FIVE of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

2. PARAPHRASE.

(a) Write a prose version of the following stanza :—

O Time ! the beautifier of the dead,
Adorner of the ruin, comforter
And only healer when the heart hath bled—
Time ! the corrector where our judgments err,
The test of truth, love,—sole philosopher,

For all besides are sophists—from thy thrift,
Which never loses though it doth defer—
Time, the avenger ! unto thee I lift

My hands, and eyes, and heart, and crave of thee a gift.

(b) Give a modern rendering of the following passage :—

In time all learning may be brought into one tongue, and that natural to the inhabitant, so that schooling for tongues may prove needless, as once they were not needed ; but it can never fall out that arts and sciences in their right nature shall be but most necessary for any common weal that is not given over unto too much barbarousness. We do attribute too much to tongues, which do mind them more than we do matter, and esteem it more honourable to speak finely than to reason wisely, where words be but praised for the time, and wisdom wins at length.

3. ANALYSIS : PROVERBIAL EXPRESSIONS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passages, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

Methinks a woman of this valiant spirit
Should, if a coward heard her speak these words,
Infuse his breath with magnanimity,
And make him, naked, foil a man at arms.
I speak not this, as doubting any here ;
For, did I but suspect a fearful man,
He should have leave to go away betimes ;
Lest, in our need, he might infect another,
And make him of like spirit to himself.
If any such be here, as God forbid !
Let him depart before we need his help.

(b) Mention as many uses as you can of the following words in proverbial or other figurative expressions :—*dog, bird, fire.*

4. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Point out the faults in the following sentences, and rewrite the passages in correct form :—

- (i) France and Russia are allies, as are England and Japan. Is it impossible to imagine that, in consequence of the growing friendship between the two great peoples on both sides of the Channel, an agreement might not one day be realised between the four powers ?
- (ii) Few candidates knew enough of the nature of discount as to be aware that the charge for discounting a bill is calculated on the period between the date of the transaction and that of the maturity of the bill.
- (iii) The volunteer does not volunteer to be compelled to suffer long and neglected illnesses, and too often death, yet such was South Africa on a vast scale, and is inevitable in war under the present official indifference.
- (iv) It is true that, disagreeing with M. Comte, though I do, in all those fundamental views that are peculiar to him, I agree with him in sundry minor views.
- (v) From his conversation I should have pronounced him to be fitted to excel in whatever walk of ambition he had chosen to exert his abilities.

- (vi) If you should be sufficiently interested to pay a personal visit to the farm, you will be welcome and every facility will be shown you.

5. USES OF WORDS.

(a) Explain, with illustrative sentences, the different uses of the words :—*more, most, as, but, since*.

(b) Write sentences showing the use of each of the following words :—*criterion, litigious, salient, occult, dissemble, initiate, redolent*.

6. LITERATURE : HISTORICAL FICTION.

(a) Mention (with the names of the authors) standard historical novels in which any of the following characters are introduced :—Mary, Queen of Scots ; Queen Elizabeth ; James I. ; Oliver Cromwell ; The Old Pretender ; The Young Pretender ; Savonarola ; Erasmus ; George Washington. — *V. Verulam*.

(b) Describe a notable scene from one of the works you name, in which the character of one of the above-mentioned historical figures is portrayed.

7. LITERATURE : POETICAL PASSAGES.

Complete *nine* of the following passages (not giving more than a line or two in any case), and name the poems from which they are taken :—

- (i) When pain and anguish wring the brow . . .
- (ii) God made the country . . .
- (iii) And fools, who came to scoff . . .
- (iv) None but the brave . . .
- (v) To me the meanest flower that blows . . .
- (vi) Where ignorance is bliss . . .
- (vii) Kind hearts are more than coronets . . .
- (viii) And coming events cast . . .
- (ix) A thing of beauty . . .
- (x) He prayeth best who loveth best . . .
- (xi) Hope springs eternal . . .
- (xii) And how can man die better . . .

JUNE 1909.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) Our Problem of National Defence.
- (ii) The Advantages and Disadvantages of Boarding Schools.
- (iii) The Novel as an Instrument of Reform.
- (iv) The Attractions of Egypt as a Place to visit.
- (v) Should we have a State-supported Theatre ?

[Only FIVE of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) Supply a title for the following passage as a whole, and a title for each of the paragraphs separately.

(ii) Give the substance of the passage in about a third or a fourth of its present length.

Ancient history has ever been one of the chief objects of human curiosity and therefore of human learning. Men have differed widely

in their theories and methods of writing and of teaching it, but no human beings above the rank of the lowest savages are ever careless about their ancestors or the past annals of their nation. Some sort of ancient history therefore must exist, and has existed since the dawn of civilisation. But history differs from history as much as the medicine-man from the enlightened physician. First come the floating legends and the simple tale, handed down by oral tradition, embellished with wonders and idealised by lofty motives. Then there is a time when such things no longer command assent, when men want to know dates and generations and a rational sequence of events, and so there springs up beside the rich epic, which pictured human life and motives, the barren chronicle; instead of varied poetry, men's minds are fed with bald and wretched prose, or prosy verse. Then comes the day of reasoned narrative, when not only are facts recorded but motives and reflections added, and this is the first record that can properly be called history.

There is yet a further step, before we reach critical history, which consists in the careful weighing of the evidence for our facts, and consequently for our theories. Thucydides, for example, who is generally thought a critical historian, is not strictly such. He submits present events, it is true, to careful sifting, and rejects altogether any miraculous interference. But to historical scepticism he can lay no claim. In dealing with the legendary history of his country he supplies motives which he thinks suitable to the recorded events, but his whole criticism affects the *motives* of the heroes, and not the stories alleged concerning them. Thucydides, in fact, and the Athenian school to which he belonged, were so engrossed with politics and with political notions that, whenever they could attribute any such origin to an alleged fact, it became to them not only probable but a matter of history. To allow any interference of the gods, to admit any chivalrous motives or any unselfish passion as an efficient cause in human affairs, above all, to believe that any woman could influence politics or change the history of a nation,—these were the ideas rejected by Thucydides and his school with scorn. It was under this theory that he reviewed the past history of his country. I consider the history of Thucydides not merely defective but to some extent false, as compared with Herodotus, whose work is like a mirror, reflecting to us all that he had seen and heard. Although the former certainly sifted his materials, and may therefore in one sense be called a critical historian, in another he cannot lay claim to the title; for he selected his materials with a view to a foregone conclusion; he made them fit a preconceived theory.

3. PARAPHRASE: PROSODY.

(a) Write a prose version of :—

When, in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes,
 I all alone beweepe my outcast state,
 And trouble deaf heaven with my bootless cries,
 And look upon myself, and curse my fate,
 Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,
 Featured like him, like him with friends possess'd,
 Desiring this man's art and that man's scope,
 With what I most enjoy contented least;

Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising,
Haply I think on thee, and then my state,
Like to the lark at break of day arising
From sullen earth, sings hymns at heaven's gate ;
For thy sweet love remember'd such wealth brings
That then I scorn to change my state with kings.

(b) Describe the metre in which the poem is written, pointing out any irregularities that are introduced.

(c) Describe any other variety of this metrical form.

4. ANALYSIS: USES AND MEANINGS OF WORDS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passage, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

Upon this cheek lay I this zealous kiss,
As seal to this indenture of my love ;
That to my home I will no more return,
Till Angiers, and the right thou hast in France,
Together with that pale, that white-fac'd shore,
Whose foot spurns back the ocean's roaring tides,
And coops from other lands her islanders,—
Even till that England, hedg'd in with the main,
That water-wall'd bulwark still secure
And confident from foreign purposes,—
Even till that utmost corner of the west
Salute thee for her king : till then, fair boy,
Will I not think of home, but follow arms.

(b) Illustrate in sentences the differences of meaning or use in the following pairs of words :—*mendicity, mendacity ; personify, personate ; presumptive, presumptuous ; salubrious, salutary ; notable, notorious.*

(c) Give the literal meaning (according to derivation) of any five of the following words :—*soldier, companion, harbour, mile, quarry, pastor, street, polite.*

5. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Re-write the following faulty sentences in correct form :—

- (i) I am sorry that a previous engagement will prevent me being present on Wednesday evening.
- (ii) The nation had settled the question that it would not have conscription.
- (iii) The fields and meadows looked a picture, being scattered with sheep and cattle feeding on the green grass.
- (iv) So far as medicine is concerned, I am not sure that physiology, such as it was down to the time of Harvey, might as well not have existed.
- (v) The Diet should leave to the Tsar the initiative of taking such measures as may be necessary.
- (vi) Be this a difference of inertia, of bulk, or of form, matters not to the argument.
- (vii) The railway has done all and more than was expected of it.
- (viii) He will see the alterations that were proposed to be made, but rejected.
- (ix) Doing one's duty generally consists of being moral, kind, and charitable.

6. SHAKESPEARE CHARACTERS.

- (a) Name the plays in which the following appear :—Caliban, Jessica, Hubert, Banquo, Edgar, Horatio, Voluminia, Fluellen, Dogberry.
 (b) Describe the part taken in the action by any *two* of the above.

7. CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

Name *three* of the most distinguished living English authors and briefly describe the general character of the work of each.

SEPTEMBER 1909.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The Tyranny of Fashion.
- (ii) Compulsory Military Training.
- (iii) The Benefits and Evils of Competition.
- (iv) Music as a Taste and as a Profession.
- (v) The Great Writers of France.

[Only FIVE of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

2. MODERN RENDERING.

Give a modern rendering of the following passage :—

This promontory the Athenians fortified as well as in haste they might, and the news of their doings drew the Peloponnesians thither in all haste out of Attica. They brought not only their land forces, but all their navy, to recover this piece, which how bad a neighbour it might prove in time they well foresaw, little fearing the grievous loss at hand which they there in few days received. Having taken order to shut up this new town by sea, they sent part of their fleet to fetch wood and other stuff wherewith to fortify round about and block up the piece on all sides. But in the mean season the Athenian fleet, hearing of their danger that were left at Pylus, returned thither, and with great courage entering the haven did break and sink many of their enemies' vessels, took five, and enforced the residue to run themselves aground. Now was the town secure, and the Spartans abiding in the island as good as lost. Wherefore the magistrates were sent from Sparta and the camp to advise what were best for the public safety, who when they did perceive that there was no other way to rescue their citizens out of the isle than by composition with their enemies, they agreed to entreat with the Athenians about peace, taking truce in the meanwhile with the captains at Pylus. The conditions of the truce were that the Lacedemonians should deliver up all the ships which were in the coast, that a certain quantity of bread, wine, and flesh should be daily carried into the isle, that the Athenians should carry the Lacedemonian ambassadors to Athens, there to treat of peace, and should bring them back, at whose return the truce should end, which if in the meantime it were broken in any one point, should be held utterly void in all, and that when the truce was expired, the Athenians should restore the Peloponnesian ships in as good case as they received them. The ambassadors coming to Athens were in opinion that as they themselves had begun the war, so might they end it when they pleased. Wherefore they told the Athenians how great an honour it was that the Lacedemonians did sue to them for peace, advising them to make an end of war whilst with such reputa-

tion they might. But they found all contrary to their expectation, for instead of concluding upon even terms, or desiring of meet recompense for loss sustained, the Athenians demanded certain cities to be restored to them, refusing likewise to continue the treaty of peace unless the Spartans which were in the isle were first rendered unto them as prisoners. Thus were the ambassadors returned without effect.

3. PARAPHRASE AND ALLUSIONS.

(a) Write a prose version of the following :—

Behind thy pasteboard, on thy battered hack,
Thy lean cheek striped with plaster to and fro,
Thy long spear levelled at the unseen foe,
And doubtful Sancho trudging at thy back,
Thou wert a figure strange enough, good lack !
To make wisecredom, both high and low,
Rub purblind eyes, and (having watched thee go)
Despatch its Dogberrys upon thy track :
Alas ! poor Knight ! Alas ! poor soul possess !
Yet would to-day, when Courtesy grows chill,
And life's fine loyalties are turned to jest,
Some fire of thine might burn within us still !
Ah ! would but one might lay his lance in rest,
And charge in earnest—were it but a mill.

(b) Explain the allusions in the above passage.

4. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passage, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

The ills that I have done cannot be safe,
But by attempting greater ; and I feel
A spirit within me chides my sluggish hands,
And says, they have been innocent too long.
Was I a man bred great as Rome herself,
One formed for all her honours, all her glories,
Equal to all her titles ; that could stand
Close up with Atlas, and sustain her name
As strong as he doth heaven, and was I,
Of all her brood, marked out for the repulse
By her no-voice, when I stood candidate
To be commander in the Pontic war ?

(b) Re-write the following passage in three sentences, avoiding semicolons and the use of the word *and* :—

The Greeks had been besieging Troy. The siege had gone on for ten years. It was all in vain. One of the Greeks contrived a device. He made a horse of wood. It was to be filled with armed men. The Greeks were to pretend to return home. They were to hide behind an island. It was hoped the wooden horse would be taken inside the walls of Troy. The Trojans found that the Greeks were gone. The Greeks seemed to have returned home. The Trojans dragged the wooden horse inside their city. They were told it had been left as a peace offering. They were told it was an offering to Minerva. They were warned by one of their priests. The priest said they should leave the wooden horse alone. He said the Greeks were to be feared,

even when they were offering a gift. The Trojans held a feast that night. They rejoiced. Then they went to sleep. The armed men issued from the horse. The Greeks had returned. The armed men opened the gates. The Greeks entered. They took the inhabitants by surprise. They slew many of them. They possessed themselves of the city.

5. PROSODY.

(a) Re-write the following stanzas in verse form, with the proper punctuation, dividing the lines according to the rhymes, without changing the order of the words :—

- (i) All I believed is true I am able yet all I want to get by a method as strange as new dare I trust the same to you.
- (ii) And still in the beautiful city the river of life is no duller only a little strange as the eighth hour dreamily chimes in the city of friends and echoes ribbons and music and colour lilac and blossoming chestnut willows and whispering limes
- (iii) Forlorn the very word is like a bell to toll me back from thee to my sole self adieu the fancy cannot cheat so well as she is famed to do deceiving elf adieu adieu thy plaintive anthem fades past the near meadows over the still stream up the hillside and now 'tis buried deep in the next valley glades was it a vision or a waking dream fled is that music do I wake or sleep

(b) Explain the metres used.

6. Write out 15 or 20 lines of any famous speech from one of Shakespeare's plays, and describe the scene from which it is taken.

7. Classify and describe the most important periodical publications of the present day.

JANUARY 1910.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) The possible effects of Aviation on war and commerce.
- (ii) The Congo State.
- (iii) The best poems for children.
- (iv) Socialism.
- (v) The advantages and drawbacks of a reformed English spelling.

[Only FIVE of the following SIX questions are to be attempted]

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) Supply a title for the following passage.

(ii) Express the substance of the passage clearly in simple language in about a third or a fourth of its present length.

Executive magistracy ought to be constituted in such a manner, that those who compose it should be disposed to love and venerate those whom they are bound to obey. A purposed neglect, or, what is worse, a literal but perverse and malignant obedience must be the ruin of the wisest counsels. In vain will the law attempt to anticipate or to follow such studied neglects and fraudulent attentions. To make men act zealously is not in the competence of law. Kings, even such as are truly kings, may and ought to bear the freedom of subjects that are obnoxious to them. They may too, without derogating from them-

selves, bear even the authority of such persons, if it promotes their service. Louis XIII. mortally hated the Cardinal de Richelieu, but his support of that minister against his rivals was the source of all the glory of his reign, and the solid foundation of his throne itself. Louis XIV., when he came to the throne, did not love Cardinal Mazarin, but for his interests he preserved him in power. When George II. took Mr Pitt, who certainly was not agreeable to him, into his councils, he did nothing which could humble a wise sovereign. But these ministers, who were chosen by affairs, not by affection, acted in the name of, and in trust for, kings, and not as their avowed, constitutional, and ostensible masters. I think it impossible that any king, when he has recovered his first terrors, can cordially infuse vivacity and vigour into measures which he knows to be dictated by those, who, he must be persuaded, are in the highest degree ill affected to his person. Will any ministers, who serve such a king (or whatever he may be called) with but a decent appearance of respect, cordially obey the orders of those whom, but the other day, in his name they had committed to the Bastile? Will they obey the orders of those, whom, whilst they were exercising despotic justice upon them, they conceived they were treating with lenity, and for whom, in a prison, they thought they had provided an asylum? If you expect such obedience amongst your other innovations and regenerations, you ought to make a revolution in nature, and provide a new constitution for the human mind. Otherwise, your supreme government cannot harmonise with its executory system.—(BURKE, *Reflections on the French Revolution.*)

3. PARAPHRASE: FIGURATIVE EXPRESSIONS.

(a) Write a prose version of the following passage :—

SHAKESPEARE.

Others abide our question. Thou art free.
We ask and ask—Thou smilest and art still,
Out-topping knowledge. For the loftiest hill,
Who to the stars uncrowns his majesty,
Planting his stedfast footsteps in the sea,
Making the heaven of heavens his dwelling place,
Spares but the cloudy border of his base
To the foiled searching of mortality;
And thou, who didst the stars and sunbeams know,
Self schooled, self scanned, self honoured, self secure,
Didst tread on earth unguessed at.—Better so!
All pains the immortal spirit must endure,
All weakness which impairs, all griefs which bow,
Find their sole speech in that victorious brow.

(b) Explain the meaning of the figurative expressions in the following passages :—

- (i) The Haji repaid me for my docility by vaunting me everywhere as the very phoenix of physicians.
- (ii) When Oliver Twist came into the court, it was the general impression that he had been taken redhanded in the burglary.
- (iii) In all his conduct, a Grandisonian style of magnanimity, both in substance and manner, was visible.

- (iv) At his marriage, the whole community wished the veteran joy on his entrance into the band of Benedicks.
- (v) After prospering for a season, the financier was ruined in a maelstrom of speculation.

4. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Re-write the following faulty sentences in correct form :—

- (i) Between the junction of the two tributaries was a level piece of ground on which the force encamped.
- (ii) The later years of his life were much diversified from the former ones.
- (iii) It was while receiving a deputation that the bullet of the anarchist struck the President.
- (iv) A novel is usually criticised by whether its plot and characters are true to life.
- (v) One thing that makes Arnold's poetry so picturesque is because he always chooses his epithets with such judgment.
- (vi) I was rather impressed by the manner of the orator than by his matter.
- (vii) The soldiers were too exhausted to take the proper care they ought of their horses.
- (viii) I cannot help but think that the general did not fight so much by choice as by compulsion.
- (ix) "Amen," said Yeo, and many an honest voice joined in that honest compact, and kept it too like men.

5. CHARACTERS IN FICTION.

Mention the books in which the following characters appear, and describe any *two* of them (one to be taken from each group) :—

- (i) Will Honeycomb, Beau Tibbs, Mrs Malaprop, Mr Hardcastle :
- (ii) Elizabeth Bennet, Joseph Sedley, Dinah Morris, Dick Swiveller, John Silver.

6. LITERARY HISTORY.

Write an account of the friends of *one* of the following :—Addison, Dr Johnson, Lamb.

7. LITERARY FORMS.

Describe the characteristics of any *three* of the following literary forms, and illustrate your answer by referring to one English example of each :—Allegory, Ballad, Burlesque, Sonnet, Tragi-comedy.

JUNE 1910.

I. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (i) Some Great American Authors.
- (ii) The Influence of Puritanism on Literature and the Drama.
- (iii) What the World owes to the Semitic races.
- (iv) The Growth of the British Navy.
- (v) The Flora and Fauna of the Tropics.
- (vi) The Leading British Industries.
- (vii) A Model Second Chamber.
- (viii) The Best Methods of Studying Foreign Languages.

[Only FIVE of the following SEVEN questions are to be attempted.]

2. MODERN RENDERING: PRÉCIS.

(i) Give a modern version of the following passage:—

I find nothing discordant therein, saving only in the sayings of Socrates, wherein I find that my said lord hath left out certain and diverse conclusions touching women. Whereof I marvel that my said lord hath not written them. But I suppose that some fair lady hath desired him to leave it out of his book. Or else he was amorous on some noble lady, for whose sake he would not set it in his book; or else for the very affection, love, and goodwill that he hath unto all ladies and gentlewomen, he thought that Socrates wrote of women more than truth, which I cannot think that so true a man and so noble a philosopher as Socrates was, should write otherwise than truth. For if he had made fault in writing of women, he ought not be believed in his other sayings. But I apperceive that my said lord knoweth verily that such defaults be not found in the women born and dwelling in these regions of the world. Socrates was a Greek, born in a far country from hence, which country is all of other conditions than this is, and men and women of other nature than they be here in this country. For I wot well, of what somever condition women be in Greece, the women of this country be right good, wise, pleasant, humble, discreet, sober, true, secret, stedfast, temperate in speaking and virtuous in all their works, or at the least should be so. For which causes, so evident, my said lord, as I suppose, thought it was not of necessity to set in his book the sayings of his author touching women. But for so much as I had commandment of my said lord to correct and amend where as I should find fault, and other find I none save that he hath left out these sayings of the women of Greece, therefore in accomplishing his commandment, for as much as I am not in certain whether it was in my lord's copy or not, or else peradventure that the wind had blown over the leaf at the time of translation of his book, I purpose to write these same sayings of that Greek Socrates which wrote of those women of Greece and nothing of them of this realm whom I suppose he never knew.

CAXTON (Spelling modernised).

(ii) Give the substance of the above in about ten lines.

3. PARAPHRASE.

Write a prose version of the following:—

"She stands alone! ally nor friend has she,"
Saith Europe of our England—her who bore
Drake, Blake, and Nelson—Warrior-Queen who wore
Light's conquering glaive that strikes the conquered free.
Alone?—From Canada comes o'er the sea,
And from that English coast with coral shore,
The old-world cry Europe had heard of yore
From Dover cliffs: "Ready, aye ready we!"
"Europe," saith England, "hath forgot my boys!—
Forgot how tall, in yonder golden zone
'Neath Austral skies, my youngest born have grown
(Bearers of bayonets now and swords for toys)—
Forgot 'mid boltless thunder—harmless noise—
The sons with whom old England 'stands alone'!"

4. ANALYSIS: USES OF WORDS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passage, saying of what kind they are, and on what word each depends :—

Now what am I ye know right well—your Queen ;
 To whom, when I was wedded to the realm
 And the realm's laws (the spousal ring whereof,
 Not ever to be laid aside, I wear
 Upon this finger), ye did promise full
 Allegiance and obedience to the death.

(b) Illustrate in sentences the differences of meaning or use in the following pairs of words :—*potent, potential ; vindication, vindictiveness ; solicitation, solicitude ; credence, credentials ; primary, primitive ; pertinent, pertinacious.*

5. CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Re-write the following faulty sentences in correct form :—

- (i) Let them agree to differ ; for who knows but what agreeing to differ may not be a form of agreement rather than a form of difference ?
- (ii) The West Indian atmosphere is not of the limpid brightness and transparent purity such as are found in the sketch entitled "A Street in Kingston."
- (iii) I then further observed that, China having observed the laws of neutrality, how could he believe in the possibility of an alliance with Russia ?
- (iv) These are men and women who profess to call themselves Christians, but I judged that they would soon mutually find each other out.
- (v) When it was my pleasure to address a meeting of over two thousand at the Royal Theatre, the opposition numbered less than seven score.
- (vi) As one of those who was present, I can bear witness to the success of the lecturer, and the emphatic welcome it received from those who heard it.
- (vii) His use of alliteration can only in many cases be forgiven by the hero-worshipper, and in spite of the novel harmonies he introduced us to, the swing of his anapæsts and dactyls are apt to cloy.
- (viii) Jeffreys was an exaggerated example of the acute but vulgar criminal lawyer, of which there have been plenty since his time.

6. SHAKESPEARE CHARACTERS.

(a) Name the plays in which any *six* of the following appear :—Ariel, Benedick, Bolingbroke, Duncan, Edmund, Faulconbridge, Hermione, Iago, Laertes, Nerissa, Olivia, Pistol.

(b) Describe the part taken in the action by any *three* of the above.

7. ENGLISH PROSE.

(a) Selecting any *six* of the following books, name the writers and mention the approximate dates of their composition :—(1) *Tales of a Grandfather*, *Essays of Elia*, *Sartor Resartus*, *Imaginary Conversa-*

tions, Sesame and Lilies; (ii) Old Mortality, Henry Esmond, The Cloister and the Hearth, A Tale of Two Cities, John Inglesant, Kidnapped.

(b) Write an account of *two* of the above-mentioned books (*one* to be taken from each group).

8. LITERARY FORMS.

(b) State the characteristics of any *three* of the following literary forms:—Elegy, Epic, Epigram, Pastoral, Satire.

(b) Illustrate your answer by describing one example from English literature of each of the three forms you have selected.

SEPTEMBER 1910.

1. ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects:—

- (i) A comparison of the character of Edward VII. with that of Edward III.
- (ii) The Roman Occupation of Britain.
- (iii) British Ballads.
- (iv) Classical legends in English literature.
- (v) The wild birds of England.
- (vi) The attractions offered to British emigrants by Australia and Canada respectively.
- (vii) The English and the Continental Sunday.
- (viii) The good qualities and the defects of the modern daily newspaper.

[Only FIVE out of the following SEVEN questions are to be attempted.]

2. PRÉCIS.

(i) Supply a title for the following passage.

(ii) Express clearly the substance of the passage in not more than 150 words.

But although historically we are justified in saying that the first geometrician was a ploughman, the first botanist a gardener, the first mineralogist a miner, it may reasonably be objected that in this early stage a science is hardly a science yet; that measuring a field is not geometry, that growing cabbages is very far from botany, and that a butcher has no claim to the title of comparative anatomist. This is perfectly true; yet it is but right that each science should be reminded of these its more humble beginnings, and of the practical requirements which it was originally intended to answer. Now, although it may seem as if, in the present high state of our society, students were enabled to devote their time to the investigation of the facts and laws of nature, or to the contemplation of the mysteries of the world of thought, without any side glance at the practical results of their labours, no science and no art have long prospered and flourished among us, unless they were in some way subservient to the practical interests of society. It is true that a Lyell collects and arranges, a Faraday weighs and analyses, an Owen dissects and compares, a Herschell observes and calculates, without any thought of the immediate marketable results of their labours. But there is a general interest which supports and enlivens their researches, and that interest depends upon the practical

advantages that society at large derives from these scientific studies. Let it be known that the successive strata of the geologist are a deception to the miner, that the astronomical tables are useless to the navigator, that chemistry is but an expensive amusement, of no use to the manufacturer and the farmer—and astronomy, chemistry, and geology would soon share the fate of alchemy and astrology. As long as alchemy instigated the avarice of its patrons by the promise of the discovery of gold, it prepared the way to discoveries more valuable. The same with astrology. Astrology was not such mere imposition as it is generally supposed to have been. Even Bacon allows it a place among the sciences, although admitting that “it had better intelligence and confederacy with the imagination of man than with his reason.” In spite of the strong condemnation which Luther pronounced against it, astrology continued to sway the destinies of Europe, and a hundred years after Luther, the astrologer was the counsellor of princes and generals, while the founder of modern astronomy died in poverty and despair. In our time the very rudiments of astrology are lost and forgotten. Even real and useful arts, as soon as they cease to be useful, die away and their secrets are sometimes lost beyond the hope of recovery. When after the Reformation our churches and chapels were divested of their artistic ornaments, in order to restore in outward appearance also the simplicity and purity of the Christian church, the colours of the painted windows began to fade away, and have never regained their former depth and harmony. The invention of printing gave the death-blow to the art of ornamental writing and of miniature painting employed in the illumination of manuscripts; and the best artists of the present day despair of rivalling the minuteness, softness, and brilliancy combined by the humble manufacturer of the mediæval missal.

3. PASSAGES FOR EXPLANATION.

Explain fully the meaning of any *five* of the following passages :—

- (i) Heat not the furnace for your foe so hot
That it do singe yourself.
- (ii) Why, man, he doth bestride the narrow world
Like a Colossus, and we petty men
Walk under his huge legs and peep about
To find ourselves dishonourable graves.
- (iii) Trifles light as air
Are to the jealous confirmations strong
As proofs of holy writ.
- (iv) Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
(That last infirmity of noble mind)
To scorn delights and live laborious days.
- (v) What can ennoble sots or slaves or cowards ?
Alas ! not all the blood of all the Howards.
- (vi) Philosophy will clip an angel's wings.
- (vii) Tully was not so eloquent as thou,
Thou nameless column with the buried base.
- (viii) Yet I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose
runs,
And the thoughts of men are widen'd with the process of
the suns.

4. ANALYSIS: VOCABULARY.

(a) In each of the following sentences state the nature of the subordinate clause and its relation to the principal sentence :—

- (i) The very day he landed, he came to see me.
- (ii) I leave you to answer the question whether that is a just decision.
- (iii) Oh, that it were possible to recall the past !
- (iv) What applies to them applies also to you in a greater degree.
- (v) Much as I had distrusted him, I had never suspected this.

(b) Make two lists, each of fifteen nouns ; the first list denoting the various parts of a cathedral, the second denoting the various parts of a steamship.

5. REPORTED SPEECH: SYNTAX.

(i) Turn the following passage into reported speech after a verb of saying in the past tense :—

In the course of what I shall have the honour to address to you, I propose the following considerations to your serious thought. About one-fifth of the whole body of British citizens may be regarded as pure Jacobins, on whom no argument can have the slightest influence. They desire a change ; they will have it, if they can. This minority is great and formidable. I do not know whether, if I aimed at the total overthrow of a kingdom, I should wish to be encumbered with a larger body of partisans. The majority of the nation, the other four-fifths, is perfectly sound, and of the best possible disposition to the true interests of their country. Such men are naturally disposed to peace. This their enemies are perfectly aware of, and accordingly they raise a continual cry for peace with France. Why are they doing so ? Because they know that, this point gained, the rest will follow of course. On our part, why are all the rules of prudence to be at this time reversed ? How comes that now for the first time men think it right to be governed by the counsels of their enemies ? Be not deluded by their devices. Reject peace and choose war, for in this course alone is there safety.

(ii) Compose sentences showing the prepositions used after the following adjectives :—amenable, disqualified, impatient, impervious, responsible.

6. CHARACTERS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

(i) Name the works in which any *six* of the following characters appear :—Sir Bedivere, Orgoglio, Mr Micawber, Faithful, Macduff, Dr Primrose, Touchstone, Sir Peter Teazle, Falstaff, Becky Sharp, Amy Robsart.

(ii) Describe in some detail the contents of any *one* of these works.

7. ENGLISH POETRY.

Write notes on any *four* of the following poems :—Samson Agonistes, In Memoriam, The Seasons, The Deserted Village, Christabel, Aurora Leigh, The Shepherd's Calendar, Saul, The Happy Warrior, Adonais, The Giaour, Hesperides.

8. PROSODY: MEANING OF WORDS.

(i) Describe any *three* of the following verse-forms :—Blank verse, heroic couplet, octosyllables, Spenserian stanza, hexameters.

(ii) Illustrate your answer by reference to three English poems, chosen to exemplify each of the forms you have described, and give quotations where possible.

Or (as an alternative to (i) and (ii)),

Explain the meaning of any *nine* of the following words, and write sentences, each of which contains one of those you have selected:—
aerodrome, evanescent, hygienic, inaugural, internecine, jeremiad, mordant, opportunism, orthodox, tantalizing, unsophisticated, utopian.

JANUARY 1911.

PART I: SUBJECTS FOR ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects:—

- (1) The ideal town.
- (2) Character as expressed by clothes.
- (3) The adventures of a diamond.
- (4) Social life as portrayed by Dickens.
- (5) The Prime Ministers of Queen Victoria's Reign.
- (6) The future of agriculture in the British Isles.
- (7) Electricity in the service of man.
- (8) The scenery of *one* of the following countries: Scotland, France, or Switzerland.

PART II.

[*Not more than FOUR of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.*]

I. PUNCTUATION: SYNTAX.

(a) Punctuate the following passage and assign the dialogue to the two speakers:—

now did faithful begin to wonder and stepping to christian for he walked all this while by himself he said to him but softly what a brave companion have we got surely this man will make a very excellent pilgrim at this christian modestly smiled and said this man with whom you are so taken will beguile with this tongue of his twenty of them that know him not do you know him then know him yes better than he knows himself pray what is he his name is talkative he dwelleth in our town he is the son of one say well he dwelt in prating row and notwithstanding his fine tongue he is but a sorry fellow.

(b) Comment on the construction of the italicised words in *any nine* of the following:—

- (i) The boy was taught *grammar*.
- (ii) The tide goes out every twenty-two *hours*.
- (iii) As they had lost their horses, the soldiers had to foot *it* back to camp.
- (iv) Blow till thou *burst* thy wind!
- (v) Better *dwell* in the midst of alarms
Than reign in this horrible place.
- (vi) The wounded man was about to *speak*, when he fainted.
- (vii) Those days have passed, never to *return*.

- (viii) The tree fell ; I am vexed at its *having injured* my dog.
- (ix) I cannot *but express* my astonishment at such folly.
- (x) Why *dream* and wait for him longer ?
- (xi) *What* with the weather and the blight, the farmer is almost ruined.
- (xii) *Up* with the flag !

2. MEANING OF WORDS: SCANSION.

(a) Explain the force of the words italicised in the following passage :—

Thus was this place
 A happy rural seat of *various* view ;
 *Groves whose *rich* trees wept odorous gums and balm,
 Others whose fruit burnished with golden rind
 Hung *amiable*, *Hesperian* fables true ;
 *If true, here only, and of delicious taste.
 Betwixt them lawns, or level downs, and flocks
 Grazing the *tender* herb, were interposed,
 *Or *palmy* hillock, or the flow'ry lap
 Of some *irriguous* valley spread her store,
 Flow'rs of all hue, and without thorn the rose.
 Another side, *umbrageous* grots and caves
 Of cool recess, o'er which the *mantling* vine
 Lays forth her purple grape.

(b) Scan the lines marked with an asterisk. Indicate the position of the caesura in each of these lines.

(c) Affix three appropriate descriptive adjectives to each of the following nouns : citadel, symphony, prairie, phalanx, canopy, sheikh, galleon.

3. PROSE STYLE.

(a) Examine the following passage and deduce from it the characteristics of the author's style :—

" This," said a philosopher, who had heard him with tokens of great impatience, " is the present condition of a wise man. The time is already come when none are wretched but by their own fault. Nothing is more idle than to inquire after happiness which nature has kindly placed within our reach. The way to be happy is to live according to nature, in obedience to that universal and unalterable law with which every heart is originally impressed ; which is not written on it by precept, but engraven by destiny ; not *instilled* by education, but *infused* at our nativity. He that lives according to nature will suffer nothing from the delusions of hope or *importunities* of desire ; he will receive and reject with *equability* of temper ; and act or suffer as the reason of things shall alternately prescribe. Other men may amuse themselves with *subtle* definitions or intricate *ratiocination*. Let them learn to be wise by easier means ; let them observe the hind of the forest and the linnet of the grove ; let them consider the life of animals, whose motions are regulated by instinct ; they obey their guide, and are happy. Let us therefore at length cease to dispute, and learn to live ; throw away the encumbrance of precepts, which they who utter them with so much pride and pomp do not understand, and carry with us this simple

and intelligible maxim : that *deviation* from nature is deviation from happiness."

(b) Give the meaning of the words italicised.

4. SHAKESPEARE.

(a) Refer to scenes from the plays of Shakespeare which are distinguished, respectively, by emotional intensity or humorous characterisation.

(b) Describe in detail *one* of these.

5. GENERAL READING.

(a) Assign any *six* of the following works to the class of literature to which each belongs : Chevy Chase, Comus, The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, Enoch Arden, Familiar Studies of Men and Books, Martin Chuzzlewit, The Mill on the Floss, On Heroes and Hero Worship, Sohrab and Rustum, The Talisman, Utopia, The Virginians.

(b) Give the approximate date of composition of each of the works you have selected, and show your acquaintance with *one* of them.

6. LITERARY HISTORY.

Name and describe briefly *either* the chief writers of the second half of the seventeenth century, *or* those of the second half of the eighteenth century.

JUNE 1911.

PART I: SUBJECTS FOR ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (1) On camping out.
- (2) Photography as an aid to science.
- (3) The adventures of a Scottish Jacobite during the Rebellion of 1745.
- (4) The charm of fairy tales.
- (5) A Parliamentary election in a provincial town.
- (6) A dialogue between two gentlemen who have just returned from seeing one of Shakespeare's plays acted at the Globe Theatre in 1610.
- (7) The influence of climate on industrial pursuits.
- (8) The historic interest of some town (other than London) in Great Britain.

PART II: GENERAL PAPER.

[FOUR *only* of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

1. PRÉCIS.

Express the substance of the following passage clearly in simple language in about a fourth of its present length :—

One of the leading peculiarities in the works of Montesquieu is the complete rejection of those personal anecdotes, and those trivial details respecting individuals, which belong to biography, but with which, as Montesquieu clearly saw, history has no concern. He perceived

that though details about the mental habits of the great are very interesting, they are also very unimportant. He knew, what no historian before him had even suspected, that in the great march of human affairs, individual peculiarities count for nothing ; and that, therefore, the historian has no business with them, but should leave them to the biographer, to whose province they properly belong. The consequence is, that not only does he treat the most powerful princes with such disregard as to relate the reigns of six emperors in two lines, but he constantly enforces the necessity, even in the case of eminent men, of subordinating their special influence to the more general influence of the surrounding society. Thus, many writers had ascribed the ruin of the Roman Republic to the ambition of Cæsar and Pompey, and particularly to the deep schemes of Cæsar. This Montesquieu totally denies. According to his view of history, no great alteration can be effected, except by virtue of a long train of antecedents, where alone we are to seek the cause of what to a superficial eye is the work of individuals. The republic, therefore, was overthrown, not by Cæsar and Pompey, but by that state of things that made the success of Cæsar and Pompey possible. It is thus that the events which ordinary historians relate are utterly valueless. Such events, instead of being causes, are merely the occasions on which the real causes act, and may be called the accidents of history.

2. ANALYSIS: SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write out the principal and dependent clauses in the following passage and state the nature of each dependent clause :—

Turn over the page, and look into the weaving of the foliage and sprays against the dark night sky, how near they are, yet how untraceable ; see how the moonlight creeps up underneath them, trembling and shivering on the silver boughs above ; note, also, the descending bit of ivy on the left, of which only two leaves are made out, and the rest is confusion, or tells only in the moonlight like faint flakes of snow.

(b) Combine the following detached sentences into one complex sentence :—

He was a man of haughty and vehement temper. He was treated very ungraciously by the court. He was supported very enthusiastically by the people. He would eagerly take the first opportunity of showing his power and gratifying his resentment. This might be expected.

3. PASSAGES FOR EXPLANATION.

Give, with comments, the sense of *five* only of the following passages :—

- (a) That love is merchandized, whose rich esteeming
The owner's tongue doth publish everywhere.
- (b) But all was false and hollow ; though his tongue
Dropp'd manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason, to perplex and dash
Maturest counsels.
- (c) Underneath day's azure eyes,
Ocean's nursling, Venice, lies.

- (d) How commentators each dark passage shun,
And hold their farthing candle to the sun.
- (e) He was not of an age, but for all time.
- (f) . . . To the sessions of sweet silent thought.
I summon up remembrance of things past.
- (g) When vice prevails, and impious men bear sway,
The post of honour is a private station.
- (h) O, for a draught of vintage ! that hath been
Cool'd a long age in the deep delvèd earth,
Tasting of Flora and the country green,
Dance, and Provençal song, and sunburnt mirth !
- (i) I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in divers tones,
That men may rise on stepping stones,
Of their dead selves to higher things.

4. SHAKESPEARE.

(a) Give instances from Shakespeare's plays of characters drawn from the following ranks of society : Nobility, clergy, the common people.

(b) Describe, with illustrative quotations, *one* of these characters.

5. GENERAL READING.

(a) Write explanatory notes on any *five* of the following passages from Taine's "History of English Literature" :—

- (i) When we see his Knight of the Cross combating with a horrible woman-serpent in defence of his beloved lady, Una, we dimly remember that, if we search beyond these two figures, we shall find behind one, Truth, behind the other, Falsehood.
- (ii) Personal memories had furnished the matter of "Maud" and "Locksley Hall."
- (iii) Here is another brother of Childe Harold, Mazeppa, bound naked on a wild horse rushing over the steppes.
- (iv) Already, in the poem which followed, "Lycidas," celebrating in the style of Virgil the death of a beloved friend, he suffers Puritan wrath and prepossessions to shine through.
- (v) His poem of "Absalom and Achitophel" was a political pamphlet.
- (vi) From infancy he detested the Whigs ; he insults them even in his "Dictionary."
- (vii) Consider the "Rape of the Lock" as a whole ; it is a buffoonery in a noble style.
- (viii) His "Cotter's Saturday Night" is the most heart-felt of virtuous idylls.
- (ix) Not only does Chaucer, like Boccaccio, bind his tales into a single history ; but, in addition, . . . he begins with the portrait of all his narrators.

(b) Describe in detail *one* of the works mentioned in the above passages.

6. ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Write an account of the works of *one* of the chief English essayists or historians.

SEPTEMBER 1911.

PART I: SUBJECTS FOR ESSAY.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (1) The Influence of Failure and Success upon Character.
- (2) The English Ideal of a King.
- (3) A holiday on the Continent.
- (4) Careers for Girls.
- (5) The Races of the British Empire.
- (6) The Romance of Astronomy.
- (7) Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne.
- (8) A Dialogue between two visitors from the Colonies on the subject of the Coronation Ceremony.

PART II.

[FOUR *only* of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

I. PRÉCIS.

Express clearly the substance of the following passage in about a fourth of its present length :—

Then came the clash and confusion of the parties into which the once predominant old Whig party had been lately rent asunder. The difficulties of the situation were aggravated by the present strange and sullen seclusion of [the elder] Pitt. In vain he was appealed to ; in vain the King made piteous submissions to induce him to return to power ; for while, on the one hand, a new administration seemed impossible without his help, on the other, it was plain that the Grenville ministry was tottering to its final fall.

Burke, not unreasonably, expected to obtain employment in the scramble. His friends were not ignorant that he had attached himself to that party among the Whigs which was the most pure and least powerful in the State. Lord Rockingham was at their head : a young nobleman of princely fortune and fascinating manners, who made up for powers of oratory, in which he was wholly deficient, by an inestimable art of attracting and securing friends, whose character was unstained by any of the intrigues of the past ten years, and who had selected for his associates men like himself, less noted for their brilliant talents than for their excellent sense and spotless honour. With the extremer opinions of Lord Temple, these men had little in common. They had obtained the general repute of a kind of middle constitutional party. Little compatible was this with present popularity, as Burke well knew, but he saw beyond the present. To the last he hoped that Pitt might be moved ; but though believing that without the splendid talents and boundless popularity of the great commoner, " an admirable and lasting system " could not then be formed, he also believed that the only substitute for Pitt's genius was Rockingham's sense and good faith, and that on this plain foundation could be gradually raised a party which might revive Whig purity and honour, and last when

Pitt should be no more. . . . Seven days after the administration was formed, Burke was appointed private secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham, and his great political life began.

2. FIGURATIVE EXPRESSIONS: GRAMMAR.

(a) Explain the following expressions and frame six sentences in each of which one is used : a sop for Cerberus—to cross the Rubicon—to take the lion's share—Draconian legislation—Arcadian simplicity—a Job's comforter.

(¹) Construct five sentences each illustrating one of the following kinds of dependent clause : cause, purpose, concession, comparison, and condition.

3. PARAPHRASE.

Reproduce the substance of the following passage in the form and style appropriate to a prose narrative :—

In full blown dignity, see Wolsey stand,
Law in his voice and fortune in his hand ;
To him the church, the realm, their powers consign,
Thro' him the rays of regal bounty shine,
Turn'd by his nod the stream of honour flows,
His smile alone security bestows ;
Still to new heights his restless wishes tower,
Claim leads to claim and power advances power ;
Till conquest unresisted ceased to please,
And rights submitted left him none to seize.
At length his sovereign frowns—the train of state
Mark the keen glance, and watch the sign to hate.
Where'er he turns, he meets a stranger's eye,
His suppliants scorn him and his followers fly.
With age, with cares, with maladies oppressed,
He seeks the refuge of monastic rest ;
Grief aids disease, remembered folly stings,
And his last sighs reproach the faith of kings.

4. SHAKESPEARE.

(a) Write explanatory notes on any *five* of the following passages from Prof. Raleigh's Shakespeare :—

- (i) His bad kings, Richard the Third and John, are not wholly unlike the villains of melodrama.
- (ii) In the *Midsummer Night's Dream* the inexplicable whims and changes of inconstant love seem to be the work of the fairies, sporting, not malevolently, with human weakness.
- (iii) Antonio and Bassanio are pale shadows of men compared with this gaunt, tragic figure, whose love of his race is as deep as life.
- (iv) He stands among the crowd at the Coronation ceremony, by the side of Justice Shallow, whom he has cheated of money, duped with promises of Royal favour, and despised ; he listens to the severe judgment of the King, and when it is ended, watches the retreating procession,

- (v) Shakespeare plainly admires Henry V.; and feels towards him none of that resentment which the spectacle of robust energy and easy success produces in weaker tempers.
- (vi) Coriolanus has to choose between the pride of his country and the closest of human affections.
- (vii) Why, it is often asked, did not Cordelia humour her father a little?
- (viii) It has often been said that Shakespeare dislikes and distrusts crowds.
- (ix) In the plays of Shakespeare's closing years there is a pervading sense of quiet and happiness which seems to bear witness to a change in the mind of their author.

5. ENGLISH POETRY

- (a) Mention instances from English literature of (i) the tale in verse; (ii) the ode; (iii) the reflective poem; (iv) the poem describing rural life.
- (b) Describe in detail *one* poem in your list.

6. HISTORIC NOVELS.

- (a) Name historic novels by Scott, Thackeray, and Kingsley, and indicate the periods they describe.
- (b) Write an account of some striking scene or adventure in *one* of these books.

JANUARY 1912.

PART I: SUBJECTS FOR ESSAY.

Choose one of the following subjects :—

1. A week at a seaside resort.
2. The place of pomp and ceremony in modern life.
3. Stories of adventure at sea.
4. Strikes and how to deal with them.
5. The future of locomotion.
6. The smaller nations of Europe.
7. The Stuart dynasty.
8. The wild flowers of Great Britain.

PART II.

[Four only of the following SIX questions are to be attempted.]

I. PUNCTUATION: MODERN RENDERING.

- (a) Compose a passage of eight or ten lines to show your acquaintance with the use of the following stops: Comma, semi-colon, colon, full stop, notes of exclamation and interrogation, inverted commas.
- (b) Give a modern rendering of the following passage from Florio's translation of Montaigne's Essays :—

The very children are acquainted with the story of Cræsus to this purpose: who being taken by Cyrus, and by him condemned to die,

upon the point of his execution cried out aloud : Oh Solon, Solon ! which words of his, being reported to Cyrus, who inquiring what he meant by them, told him, he now at his own cost verified the advertisement Solon had before times given him : which was, " that no man, what cheerful and blandishing countenance soever fortune showed them, may rightly deem himself happy, till such time as he have passed the last day of his life, by reason of the uncertainty and vicissitude of human things, which by a very light motive, and slight occasion, are often changed from one to another clean contrary state and degree." And therefore Agesilaus answered one that counted the King of Persia happy, because being very young, he had gotten the garland of so mighty and great a dominion : yea but said he, Priam at the same age was not unhappy.

2. ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

(a) Write out the subordinate clauses in the following passages, name their kind, and point out the relation of each to the sentence on which it depends :—

- (i) And then he thinks he knows
The Hills where his life rose
And the Sea where it goes.
- (ii) I know not where his islands lift
Their fronded palms in air.
- (iii) Where Claribel low lieth
The breezes pause and die.
- (iv) What matters where
A true man's cross may stand ?
- (v) And that's your Venus, whence we turn
To yonder girl that fords the burn.

(b) Condense the following statements into one complex sentence, introducing all the facts given :—

He is now gone to his final reward. He was full of years and honours. These honours were especially dear to his heart for the following reasons. They were gratefully bestowed by his pupils. They bound him to the interests of that school. He had been educated in that school. His whole life has been dedicated to its service.

3. SYNTAX.

(a) Examine the syntax of the italicised words in the following sentences :—

- (i) And sudden *pale* usurps her cheeks.
- (ii) Death grinned horribly a ghastly *smile*.
- (iii) Now this, though it *make* the unskilful laugh, cannot but
make the judicious *grieve*.
- (iv) Never harm, nor spell, nor charm,
Come our lovely lady nigh.

- (v) Then the good king gave orders *to let blow*
His horns for *hunting* on the morrow morn.

(b) Construct sentences showing the prepositions used after *anxious*, *confide*, *impatient*, *impose*, *warn*.

4. ENGLISH POETRY.

(a) Explain fully the meaning of the words and phrases italicised in the following stanza from Campbell's *Ode to Winter* :—

- *But *howling* winter fled afar
To *hills that prop the polar star* ;
And loves on *deer-borne* car to ride
With barren darkness at his side,
*Round the shore where *loud* Lofoden
Whirls to death the roaring whale,
Round the hall where Runic Odin
Howls his war song to the gale—
Save when adown the ravaged globe
He travels on his *native* storm,
Deflowering Nature's *grassy robe*
And trampling on her *faded* form ;
Till *light's returning* Lord assume
* *The shaft* that drives him to his northern field,
Of power to pierce his *raven plume*
* And *crystal-cover'd* shield.

(b) Scan the lines marked with an asterisk in the above.

5. SHAKESPEARE.

Select *one* of the most generally read plays of Shakespeare, and by considering its plot, characterisation and other features, find reasons for its popularity.

6. MODERN FICTION.

Choose *one* novel, dealing with contemporary society, by Dickens, Jane Austen, Charlotte Brontë or George Eliot, and write an account of it.

JUNE 1912.

PAPER I : SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS.

Choose *one* of the following subjects :—

- (1) National heroes.
- (2) A visit to the theatre.
- (3) Does the cause of peace progress ?
- (4) The English in Ireland.
- (5) The future of India.
- (6) The political divisions of Africa.
- (7) The utility of chemistry in modern life.
- (8) Imagine that you have to address a meeting in support of the scheme for establishing a Shakespeare Memorial Theatre.
Compose a speech which you think appropriate to the occasion

PAPER II.

[Answer FOUR and not more than FOUR of the following six questions. If more than four questions are attempted, only the first four answers will be marked.]

1. PRÉCIS.

(a) Supply a title for the following passage.

(b) Express clearly the substance of it in about a third of its present length.

Climate influences labour not only by enervating the labourer or by invigorating him, but also by the effect it produces on the regularity of his habits. Thus we find that no people living in a very northern latitude have ever possessed that steady and unflinching industry for which the inhabitants of temperate regions are remarkable. In the more northern countries the severity of the weather, and, at some seasons, the deficiency of light, render it impossible for the people to continue their usual out-of-door employments. The result is that the working classes, being compelled to cease from their ordinary pursuits, are rendered more prone to desultory habits, the chain of their industry is, as it were, broken, and they lose that impetus which long-continued and uninterrupted practice never fails to give. Hence there arises a national character more fitful and capricious than that possessed by a people whose climate permits the regular exercise of their ordinary industry. Indeed, so powerful is this principle that we perceive its operations even under the most opposite circumstances. It would be difficult to conceive a greater difference in government, laws, religion, and manners, than that which distinguishes Sweden and Norway, on the one hand, from Spain and Portugal on the other. But these four countries have one great point in common. In all of them continued agricultural industry is impracticable. In the two southern countries labour is interrupted by the dryness of the weather and by the consequent state of the soil. In the two northern countries the same effect is produced by the severity of the winter and the shortness of the days. The consequence is that these four nations, though so different in other respects, are all remarkable for a certain instability and fickleness of character.

2. MEANING OF WORDS AND PHRASES.

(a) Discuss the meaning of the words in the following group of synonyms: *upright, honest, honourable, equitable, impartial, scrupulous, incorruptible*.

(b) Construct five sentences, each containing one of the following adjectives: *inimitable, nonchalant, palpable, refractory, sapient, stringent, superficial*.

(c) Explain any four of the following figurative expressions: Egyptian darkness—to be between Scylla and Charybdis—votaries of Terpsichore—a Quixotic act—to write Johnsonese.

3. ANALYSIS: SYNTAX.

(a) Construct three complex sentences consisting of the following clauses:—

(i) Principal Sentence, Adverbial Clause of Condition, Noun Clause as object.

(ii) Principal Sentence, Adverbial Clause of Concession, Adjectival Clause.

(iii) Principal Sentence, Noun Clause in apposition to the subject, Adverbial Clause of Cause, Adjectival Clause.

(b) Give one or more examples of the use of any *five* of the following constructions :—

- (1) A collective noun with a plural verb.
- (2) A transitive verb with a double object.
- (3) The subjunctive in a principal sentence.
- (4) The infinitive dependent on an adjective.
- (5) The nominative absolute used with a present participle.
- (6) A gerund governing an object.
- (7) An adverb modifying a preposition.

4. PARAPHRASE : POETIC DICTION.

(a) Write a prose version of the following :—

Oh ! knew he but his happiness, of men
The happiest he ! who far from public rage
Deep in the vale, with a choice few retired,
Drinks the pure pleasures of the rural life.
Sure peace is his ; a solid life, estranged
To disappointment and fallacious hope—
Rich in content, in Nature's bounty rich,
In herbs and fruits ; whatever greens the spring
When heaven descends in showers or bends the bough,
When summer reddens and when autumn beams,
Or in the wintry glebe whatever lies
Concealed and fattens with the richest sap :
These are not wanting ; nor the milky drove,
Luxuriant spread o'er all the lowing vale ;
Nor bleating mountains ; nor the chide of streams
And hum of bees, inviting sleep sincere
Into the guiltless breast beneath the shade.

(b) From the above passage illustrate some of the ways in which the diction of poetry differs from that of prose.

5. ENGLISH POETRY.

Write an account of *one* important poem by one of the following authors : Milton, Pope, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, or Scott, and indicate its outstanding characteristics.

6. HISTORICAL NOVELS.

Mention historical novels dealing with events in ancient or modern history before 1660, and describe the experiences of some important character to be found in one of them.

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"HIGHER ENGLISH." By F. J. RAHTZ, M.A., B.Sc.

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